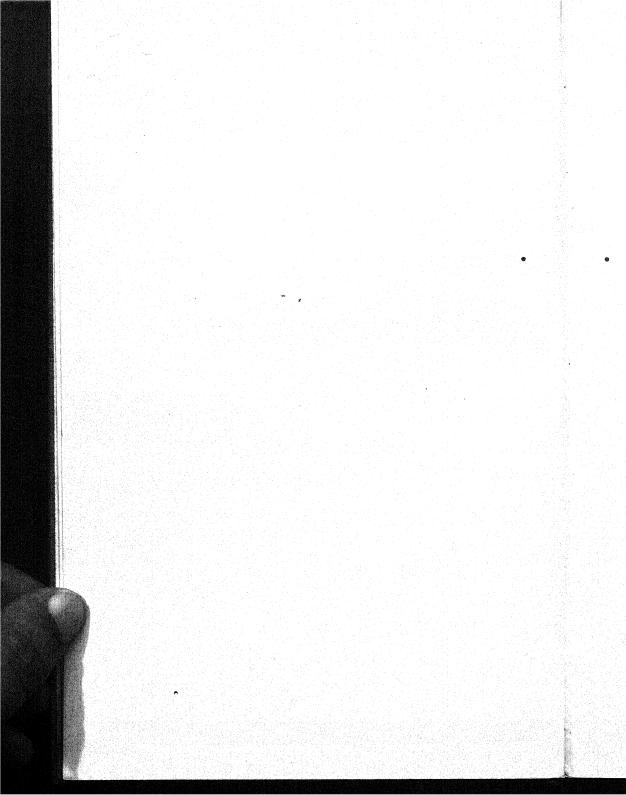
FRAGMENTS FROM DINNĀGA



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BY

H. N. RANDLE, M.A.

Indian Educational Service Professor of Philosophy, Allahabad University

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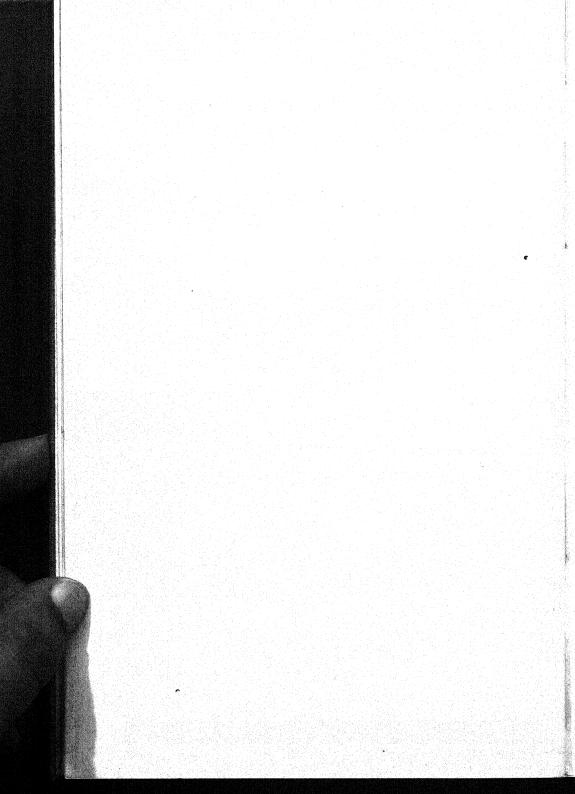
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PREFACE

This treatise was originally written as part of a study of Indian Logic in the Early Schools undertaken for the doctorate in Philosophy of the University of Oxford. Dr. F. W. Thomas, to whom I am greatly indebted for his encouragement and assistance, suggested its separate publication; and my thanks are due to the Council of the Royal Asiatic Society for deciding to publish it as a monograph. I desire also to express my gratitude to Mr. A. H. Mackenzie, Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces, and to the United Provinces Government, for the grant of study leave which has enabled me to carry out the work.

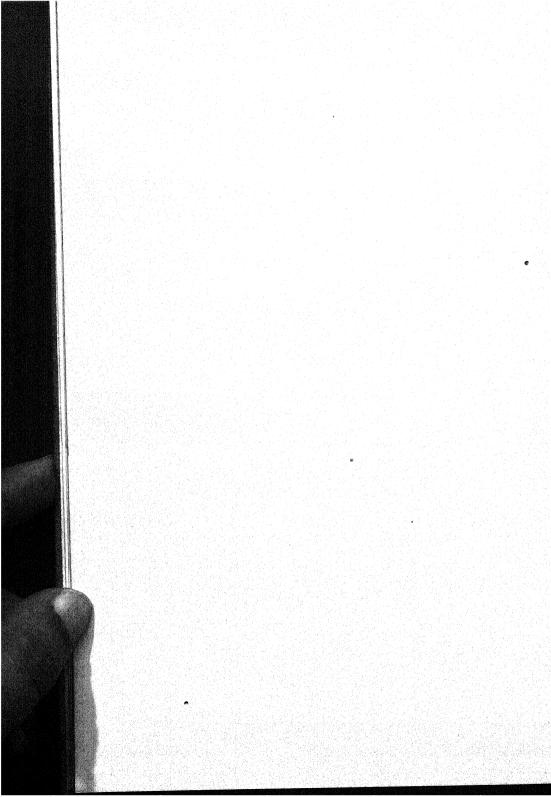
H. N. RANDLE.

July, 1926.



CONTENTS

SECT	TION	PAGE
1.	Introductory	I
2.	The Pramāṇa-samuccaya	6
3.	Fragment A. Definition of Perception	8
4.	Vasubandhu's definition	. 10
5.	Fragment B. manas as an organ of sense	13
6.	Fragment C. Contact in vision	. 14
7.	Fragment D. Criticism of the Vaisesika doctrine of the per-	
	ceptibility of substance	. 16
8.	Fragment E. Testimony not a separate source of know-	
	ledge	. 17
	Fragment F. The probandum in an inference .	. 18
10.	Fragment G. Experience of an object inseparably connected with another is the instrument of inference	. 21
11	Fragment H. The threefold canon of syllogism .	. 22
	A septenary of types of syllogism	. 24
	Vasubandhu as a critic of the Nyāya	. 25
	Fragment I. Definitions of (i) inference for another, and	
	(ii) proof	. 28
15.	Fragment J. The Nine Types of syllogism .	. 29
16.	Fragment K. All middle terms are pakṣa-dharma .	. 34
17.	Fragment L. Criticism of the definition of hetu given in	ì
	NS, I, i, 34. Uddyotakara's reply	. 36
18.	Fragment M. Definition of a probans or valid middle term	
	(the concept of $vyar{a}pti$)	. 46
19.	Fragment N. 'Analogy' not a separate source of know	
20	ledge	. 48 . 51
	Fragment O. The object of inference merely ideal .	. 51
	Fragment P. Definition of vāda	
22.	Fragment Q. Criticism of the <i>Vaisesika</i> doctrine of the rea universal	. 56
	왕이 아이들이 나는 것이 되는 것은 사람이 되는 것이 되었다면 하는데 하는데 되었다.	. 61
	게임호수상 - 및 10	71
	남, 휴가, 이 작가 이번 하는 일 보다를 모았는데 하지 않는데 밥을 그리는데 하고 있습니다.	
	Index	. 85



LIST OF FRAGMENTS

[Fragments asterisked have been identified by Vidyābhūṣaṇa in the Tibetan version of *Pramāṇa-samuccaya*.]

	Fragment.	Source.
*A.	Definition of Perception	$\begin{cases} NV, \text{ p. 44, l. l, and} \\ NVT, \text{ p. 102, l. 10.} \end{cases}$
*B.	The 'internal organ'	NVT, p. 97, ll. 1 and 28.
c.	Difficulty as to the visual organ's being in contact with its object (4 lines) .	NVT, p. 76, l. 28.
D.	How can substance be seen if only colour is the object of vision? (prose citation)	NVT, p. 129, l. 22.
*E.	Testimony not a separate source of knowledge	NV, p. 63, l. 13; NVT, p. 138, l. 19.
*F.	What is the probandum in inference? (8 lines)	NVT, p. 120, l. 12.
G.	Definition of anumāna or the instrument of inferential knowledge .	NV, p. 56, l. 14.
*H.	The three characters of a valid reason or middle term	NV, p. 58, l. 2.
I.	(i) Inference for another; (ii) proof .	NRA, p. 252 and p. 250.
*J.	The nine reasons or types of argument (8 lines)	NVT, p. 198, l. 1.
K.	All middle terms are pakṣa-dharma .	$\begin{cases} NVT, \text{ p. 198, l. 14; cf.} \\ NV, \text{ p. 132, l. 13.} \end{cases}$
L.	Criticism of the definition of hetu given in NS, I, i, 34 ($4\frac{1}{2}$ lines)	(NVT, pp. 189-190 (p. 189, l. 16 to p. 190, l. 2); NV, p. 123, l. 8 to p. 125, l. 4.
M.	Definition of hetu	NV, p. 134, l. 13.
N.	'Comparison' as a source of knowledge is reducible to perception or testimony	$\begin{cases} NVT, p. 135, l. 14; \text{ cf.} \\ NV, p. 60, l. 16. \end{cases}$
o.	The object of inference is merely an ideal construction (prose citation).	NVT, p. 127, l. 1; p. 39, l. 13; cf. Śl. Vārt., nirālambana, verses 167-168.
P.	Definition of vāda	$\begin{cases} NV, \text{ p. } 124, \text{ l. 8; cf.} \\ NV, \text{ p. } 151, \text{ l. 20, and} \\ NVT, \text{ p. } 218, \text{ l. 9.} \end{cases}$
	20 회의 의미 (1982년 1986년 1982년 - 1982년 - 1982년 1982년 - 1	그리다 그로 보는 경치 되면 된 대통하여, 원인들이 때문

agm	

 $\begin{cases} SDS, & \text{chapter} & \text{on} \\ Bauddhas, & \text{p.} & 22 = \\ \text{Cowell} & \text{and} & \text{Gough,} \\ \text{p.} & 21. \end{cases}$ Q. Criticism of the Vaisesika account of the universal (sāmānya) (6 lines) .

Source.

Note.—All these fragments are definitely attributed to Dinnaga by Vācaspati Miśra except fragments P and Q. Fragment Q is attributed to Dinnaga on the authority of a Jaina logician who cites two of the lines as Dinnāga's: and there seems to be no reason to doubt the attribution. Vidyābhūsana has identified six of these fragments with passages from the Tibetan version of the $Pram\bar{a}na$ -samuccaya, as follows:

A=Pramāṇa-samuccaya, Chapter I (HIL, p. 27 B= ,, ,, I (p. 280). E= ,, ,, II (p. 288).	7).
11 - " TT / QOIL	
F= " " II (p. 281). II (p. 288).	
H= " " " III (p. 283).	

For the attribution of fragment Q to Dinnāga, see Vidyābhūṣaṇa, HIL, p. 273.

The arrangement of the fragments here follows what seems to be the probable order of the topics in the Pramāna-samuccaya.

A, B, C, D=Chapter I (perception).

E, F, G, H=Chapter II (inference for oneself).

J, K (L, M?)=Chapter III (inference for another).

(L, M,) N=Chapter IV (reason and example). Q=Chapter V (apoha).

O and P can hardly be located.

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- Jhā, Ganganātha. PSPM=Prābhākara School of Pūrva Mīmāmsā. Allahabad, 1911; and in Indian Thought.
- Keith, A. B. BP=Buddhist Philosophy in India and Ceylon. Oxford University Press, 1923.
- Keith, A. B. ILA=Indian Logic and Atomism, an exposition of the Nyāya and Vaišeṣika systems. Oxford University Press, 1921.
- NBh=Nyāya-bhāṣya of Vātsyāyana, edited with the Sūtra and with extracts from the Vārttika and the Tātparya-tīkā, by Gangādhara Sāstrī Tailanga. Vizianagram Sanskrit Series, Benares, 1896.
 References are to this edition. It has also been edited with the Sūtra and the Vrtti by Lakṣmana Sāstrī and Rāma Sāstrī.
- $NK = Ny\bar{a}ya \cdot kandal\bar{\imath}$ of Śrīdhara Miśra, on Praśastapāda's $bh\bar{a}sya$, with which it is edited.

Benares, 1920.

- NRA=Nyāya-ratnākara of Pārthasārathi Miśra, on Kumārila's Ślokavārttika, with which it is edited.
- NS=Nyāya-sūtra. Printed with editions of the Nyāya-bhāşya and Nyāya-vārttika. Edited and translated by S. C. Vidyābhūṣaṇa, in the Sacred Books of the Hindus Series, Allahabad, 1909.
- NV=Nyāya-vārttika of Uddyotakara. Edited by Vindhyeśvari Prasāda Dvivedi (Dūbe), Bibliotheca Indica, Calcutta, 1907. References are to this edition. A later and in some respects better edition is that by the same editor and Lakṣmaṇa Śāstrī Draviḍa in the Chowkhamba Sanskrit Series, Benares, 1915.
- NVT = Nyāya-vārttika-tātparya-ṭīkā (briefly Tātparya-ṭīkā) of Vācaspati Miśra. Edited by Gangādhara Śāstrī Tailanga, Vizianagram Sanskrit Series, Benares, 1898. References are to this edition. It is now being edited by Śrirājeśvara Śāstrī Dravida in the Benares Sanskrit Series. (The first adhyāya only has appeared so far, in 1925. It is a very valuable check on the earlier edition.)

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l'Inde. In le Muséon, n.s. v, 1904.

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Sugiura, Sadajiro. *Hindu Logic as preserved in China and Japan*. Philadelphia, 1900. (The author apparently knew no Sanskrit, and was not acquainted with the logic of the orthodox schools.

But he gives very valuable information.)

Sl. Vārt. = Sloka-vārttika of Kumārila Bhatta on the tarka-pāda of Sabara's Bhāsya on the Mīmāmsā. Edited, together with the Nyāya-ratnākara of Pārthasārathi Miśra, by Rāma Śāstrī Tailanga, Chowkhamba Sanskrit Series, Benares, 1898-1899. Translated by Ganganātha Jhā, Bibliotheca Indica, Calcutta, 1900-1908.

Ui, H. Vaišeṣika Philosophy according to the Daśapadārtha-śāstra,

Royal Asiatic Society, London, 1918.

VS = Vaišeṣika-sūtra. Edited and translated by A. E. Gough, Benares, 1873 (reprint from The Pandit); and by Nand Lāl Sinha, Sacred Books of the Hindus, Allahabad, 1911. There was a Bibliotheca Indica edition, with the Upaskāra of Śaṁkara Miśra, Calcutta, 1861.

Vidyābhūṣaṇa, Satis Candra. (1) $MSIL = Indian \ Logic \ Mediæval \ School, Calcutta University, 1909. This is embodied in a revised$

form in-

(2) HIL=History of Indian Logic Ancient Mediæval and Modern School. Calcutta University, 1922. See notice in J.R.A.S, April, 1925, pp. 345-348.

ERRATA

Page 1, note 3: for Trikāla-parīkṣa read °kṣā.

Page 3, note 2: for sahādhyayaḥ read sahādhyāyaḥ.

Page 3, note 2: for Adreh srngam read °śrngam.

Page 9, line 14: for nāmajāti-yojānā read vojanā.

Page 12, line 4: for yogacāra read yogācāra.

Page 12, line 10: for yogācara read yogācāra. Page 16, note 1: for saktir read śaktir.

Page 19, line 3: for sruyeta read śruyeta.

Page 21, line 19: for nantarīyakas read *kaś.

Page 21, line 20: for tav-vido . . . tam read tad-vido . . tam.

Page 24, note 1: for I, i, 5 read I, i, 34.

Page 25, lines 14-15: for parārthānumana read °māna.

Page 25, line 29: for $tes\bar{a}m$ read $tes\bar{a}\dot{m}$.

Page 27, note 1: for svarūpenaiva read svarūpenaiva.

Page 27, last line: for svarūpenaiva read svarūpenaiva.

Page 30, line 7: for dvedha read odhā.

Page 30, line 13: for śāsvatāh read śāśvatāh.

Page 34, line 3: for uktam read uktam.

Page 34, last line but one: for kenaital read °tal.

Page 36, line 7: for udāharanā read ona.

Page 37, note 1: for pancamī read pañcamī.

Page 37, note 2: for -avyabhichāritvād read °cāritvād.

Page 39, line 2: for prakārakatvam read °tvam.

Page 41, note 1: for laksanam read onam.

Page 42, line 18: for višesyam . . . evārthad read višesyam . . . evārthād.

Page 42, line 19: for kutah read kutah.

Page 46, line 5: for prabandum read pro°.

Page 49, line 16: for vakyād read vākyād.

Page 50, line 25: for vakyād read vākyād.

Page 51, line 12: for upasamharāt read °hārāt.

Page 51, line 20: for yan nāntarīyakam read yannā.

Page 51, line 26: for yadā 'hur read yad āhur.

Page 51, line 31: for Śloka-vārtika read °vārttika.

Page 52, line 6: for 'numananumeya read 'numānānumeya.

Page 53, line 13: for samvṛti read samvṛti.

Page 54, last line: for svābhimatam read °tam.

Page 62, line 8 from end: for Vaišesika read °sika.

Page 63, line 8 from end: for is sound read of sound.

Page 67, line 14: for it read the doctrine.

Page 68, line 9: for samyoga read samo.

Page 70, line 7: for lingāsiddha read lingā°.

Page 78, for lines 5-10 substitute:

vipakṣāvṛtti, where M is a peculiar property of S, found neither in positive nor in negative instances) holds a special position and is called asādhāraṇa.¹ Uddyotakara argues in the first place that an asādhāraṇa-dharma or peculiar property of S may be a valid reason if there are no instances of XP; and he points out in the second place that the example

Page 80, line 1: for similar cases read other instances of M.

INDEX.

Page 85, column 1, line 23: for sāmanya read sāmānya.

Page 85, column 2, lines 20-21: for pañcāvāyava read °vayava.

Page 85, column 2, line 36: after 25 insert 82.

Page 86, column 1, lines 28-29: for avāyava read ava°.

Page 88, column 1, line 18: transfer aprāmānya so as to precede abhidhāna.

Page 88, column 1, line 46: for Asanga read Asanga.

Page 88, column 2, line 10: for āptodeśa read āptoddeśa.

Page 89, column 1, line 33: for kṣana read kṣaṇa.

Page 89, column 2, lines 35-37: transfer so as to follow dharma.

Page 89, column 2, lines 54-56: transfer so as to follow nigamana on p. 90.

Page 90, column 2, line 2 from end: transfer so as to follow manas.

Page 91, column 1, line 47: for vijñānā-vāda read vijñāna-vāda-

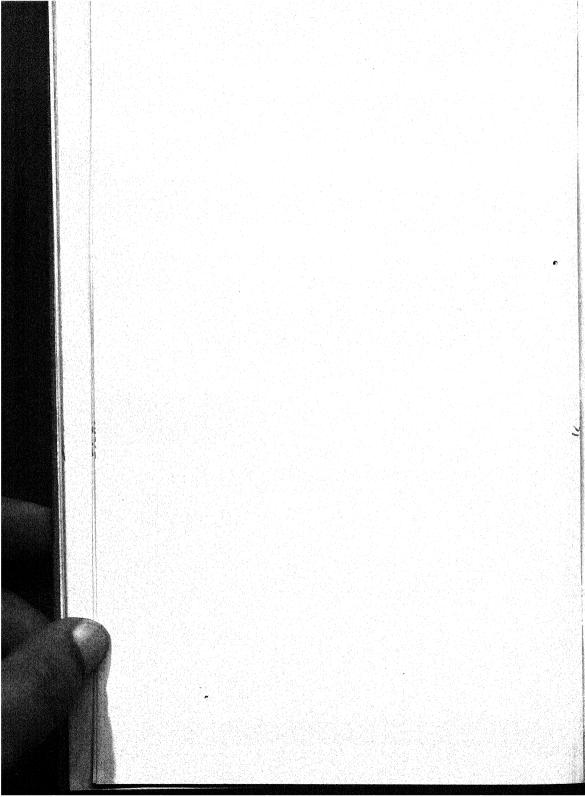
Page 91, column 2, line 41: before 31 insert 23.

Page 92, column 1, line 4: for sajatīya read sajātīya.

Page 92, column 1, line 42: for samyoga read samyoga.

INTERPRETATION OF LOGICAL FRAGMENTS FROM DINNĀGA

Dinnāgānām pathi pariharan sthūla-hastāvalepān (Kālidāsa's Megha-dūta, I, 14).



FRAGMENTS FROM DINNĀGA

SECTION 1.—INTRODUCTORY.

Vācaspati Miśra states that Uddyotakara's motive in composing the Nyāya-vārttika was to remove the obscurity in which the śāstra had become veiled owing to the misinterpretations of Dinnāga and others.\(^1\) This statement is fully borne out both by the contents of the Vārttika itself and by the numerous citations which Vācaspati fortunately makes from Dinnāga. Certain of these citations have been identified by Vidyābhūṣaṇa\(^2\) with passages in the Tibetan version of the Pramāṇa-samuccaya, which is one of the works attributed to Dinnāga in the Tanjur.\(^3\) Not one of them has been

 1 NVT, p. 1, l. 14. Dinnāga-prabhrtibhir arvācīnaih kuhetu-santamasa-samutthāpanenāvacchaditam śāstram . . . ity Uddyotakareṇa svanibandhoddyotena tad apanīyate.

Uddyotakara himself says in the introductory verses attached to the

Vārttika:

yad Akşapādaļ pravaro munīnām śamāya śāstram jagato jagāda kutārkikājñāna-nivṛtti-hetuļ kariṣyate tasya mayā nibandhaḩ.

² S. C. Vidyābhūṣaṇa, *History of Indian Logic*, Calcutta, 1921), pp. 273-288 footnotes. The central part of this work deals with 'the Mediæval School,' and is a revised version of the account given in his *Indian Logic Mediæval School* (Calcutta, 1909). The later version corrects in important points the earlier.

³ Besides the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya*, Diṇṇāga is the reputed author of the following works which are extant in Chinese and Tibetan versions:

- (i) Pramāṇa-samuccaya-vṛtti.
- (ii) Ālambana-parīkṣā.
- (iii) Ālambana-parīkṣā-vṛtti.
- (iv) Trikāla-parīkṣa.
- (v) And a strictly logical work with regard to the exact title and contents of which it would seem that the Tibetan and the Chinese

identified with any passage from any other of the works there attributed to Dinnāga. While therefore we have in the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $v\bar{a}rttika$ - $t\bar{a}tparya$ - $t\bar{i}k\bar{a}$ evidence which amounts to proof that the $Pram\bar{a}na$ -samuccaya is the work of Dinnāga, we have complete absence of such evidence in the case of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $prave\acute{s}a$, the other logical work attributed to him.

Dinnāga's date falls somewhere between the date of the Nyāya-bhāṣya, which he criticises, and that of Uddyotakara, who replies to his criticism. Uddyotakara may be taken with considerable probability to have flourished in the early years of the seventh century. Vātsyāyana's date may be approximately 300 A.D. Dinnāga is said to have been a disciple of Vasubandhu, whose date, however, is "not yet quite settled": but the earliest computation puts his death at

traditions are at variance. Cf. Ui's Vaišeṣika Philosophy, p. 68 footnote, with Vidyābhūṣaṇa's History of Indian Logic, p. 289 footnote, 300 footnote, and 302 with footnotes. It is, I think, impossible to accept the accuracy of Vidyābhūṣaṇa's statements without assuming that the Tibetan tradition is at variance with the Chinese. Vidyābhūṣaṇa says that the Nyāya-praveśa of which he gives a detailed account is ascribed in the Tanjur to Dinnāga. Ui says that his account corresponds (not, as Vidyābhūṣaṇa asserts, to Nos. 1223 and 1224 of the Chinese Tripitaka, which purport to be two distinct Chinese versions of a Nyāya-dvāra ascribed to Dinnāga, but) to No. 1216—the Hetuvidyā-nyāya-praveśa-śāstra ascribed to one Śamkara Svāmin, a disciple of Dinnāga (who, according to Vidyābhūṣaṇa, is unknown to Tibetan tradition). Vidyābhūṣaṇa suggests a doubt as to whether the original Sanskrit of 1216 was different from that of 1224 (and of 1223): but Sugiura's account shows that the two works are quite distinct.

The Gaekwad's Oriental Series advertises as in the press a "Nyāya-praveśa of Dinnāga," which will doubtless prove to be the Sanskrit

original of the work of which Vidyābhūṣaṇa gives an account.

1 As regards the 'Hetu-cakra-hamaru' which Vidyābhūṣaṇa at first treated as a separate work of Dinnāga, he now says that it is a chapter of the 'Nyāya-praveśa.' The title should no doubt be Hetu-cakra-damaru (as suggested by Dr. F. W. Thomas—agreeing with Cordier): but Dr. Thomas states that the block-print actually has -hamaru.

² Stcherbatsky, Central Conception of Buddhism, p. 2, n. 2. "The dates of the Chinese translations of the works of Asanga and Vasubandhu, if correct, would be sufficient evidence to assign them to the fourth century. Otherwise one feels inclined to bring Vasubandhu nearer to Dinnāga, whose teacher he was." Keith, B.P., p. 155, inclines

350 A.D. The indication of Dinnāga's date afforded by the fact that two of the works attributed to him were translated into Chinese in 557 and 569 A.D.¹ carries us a little further. But the supposed reference to him as a contemporary in Kālidāsa's $Megha-d\bar{u}ta^2$ can hardly be regarded as evidence. All that can be said with certainty is that he lived somewhere between 350 A.D. and 500 A.D.

It does not seem feasible, in this uncertainty, to argue from absolute to relative chronology. Except in those rare cases in which an author dates his own works (and dates them in an era that can be identified), the safest procedure would seem to be to attempt to fix the relative chronology of works on

Kālidāsa's lines are:

Adreh srngam harati pavanah kimsvid ity unmukhībhir Drstotsāhas cakita-cakitam mugdha-siddhānganābhih Sthānād asmād sarasa-niculād utpatodanmukham kham Dinnāgānām pathi pariharan sthūla-hastāvalepān.

Mallinātha did not invent the secondary meaning suggested: his comment embodies a tradition. Nevertheless, its value as evidence for the date of the great Dinnāga would still be small, even if Kālidāsa's date were more certain than it is. See, however, F. W. Thomas in J.R.A.S., January, 1918, pp. 118-122. Kṣetreśacandra Chaṭṭopādhyāya, in an article on the Date of Kālidāsa (Allahabad University Studies, Vol. II, 1926), points out that the earliest commentators on the Megha-dūta do not read any secondary meaning into these lines. This suggests that the supposed reference to Dinnāga is a later invention.

to Péri's view that Vasubandhu's death was not later than $350\,$ A.D. On the strength of this he suggsts in ILA, p. 98, that Dinnaga may have flourished before $400\,$ A.D.

¹ Vidyābhūṣaṇa, HIL, p. 272. Vidyābhūṣaṇa's dating of Dinnāga as 'about 500 A.D.' depends on his dating of Vasubandhu about 430 A.D.

² See Mallinātha's comment on Megha-dūta, I, 14. There is nothing in Kālidāsa's lines to suggest the secondary meaning which Mallinātha reads into them. He says the reference in sarasaniculād is to a rasiko Niculo nāma mahākaviḥ, Kalidāsasya sahādhyayaḥ, parāpāditānām Kālidāsa-prabandha-dūṣanānām parihartā; and he explains dinnāgānām as Dinnāgācāryasya Kālidāsa-pratipakṣasya. The title-ācāryasya suggests the famous Buddhist: otherwise it might be supposed that Mallinātha had some other Dinnāga, poet or literary critic, in view: for the notion of the logician Dinnāga in the rôle of literary critic here assigned to him does not carry conviction.

above.

the basis of internal evidence. The immediate application of this remark is to the difficult problem of the relation of Dinnaga to Prasastapada. The absolute date of Prasastapada is even more uncertain than the absolute date of Dinnaga: and it is not therefore possible to settle the question of indebtedness by a consideration of priority. It is a question which can be settled only by internal evidence; and until it has been settled beyond reasonable possibility of doubt, it should not be permitted either to affect, or to be affected by, the chronological issue.¹

In any attempt to fix the relation of Dinnaga to Prasastapada it is essential to argue from doctrines which are indubitably Dinnaga's. It is also very desirable to have these doctrines in his own words, since the cogency of a conclusion may turn on the word which a writer uses and on the precise shade of meaning which it has for him. Of the two logical works attributed to Dinnaga, the Nyāya-praveśa satisfies neither of these two conditions. An account of it has been given by Vidyābhūṣaṇa in his History of Indian Logic; but for the reasons indicated it does not furnish data which can safely be used for purposes of instituting a comparison between the logic of Dinnaga and that of Prasastapada.

The case is quite different with the Pramāṇa-samuccaya.

doctrine is obviously very precarious. For the Nyāya-praveśa see note

¹ Cf. Keith, ILA, p. 27 and p. 99. "The upper limit of date is suggested by Praśastapāda's indebtedness to Dinnāga, whose most probable date is about 400 A.D., and it would accord well enough with all probability if Praśastapāda were referred to the fifth century." "It is clear that so far as chronological grounds go there is nothing to prevent the supposition that Praśastapāda was indebted for his system largely to Dinnāga." There is also nothing to prevent the supposition that Dinnāga was indebted to Praśastapāda. Steherbatsky now (1924) has accepted this supposition, and maintains that Praśastapāda was either a contemporary or a predecessor of Vasubandhu, the teacher of Dinnāga. See his Appendix contributed to the German translation of his Epistemology and Logic according to the Later Buddhists (1909, St. Petersburg), translated into German by Strauss (1924, Munich).

² To use the much later Nyāya-bindu as authority for Dinnāga's

It is indubitably the work of Dinnaga. And considerable fragments of it, and these from the nature of the case dealing with important aspects of his doctrine, are accessible in his own words, as quoted by Vācaspati Miśra. Under these circumstances it seems useful to collect and interpret the various citations from the Pramana-samuccaya embodied in the Nyāya-vārttika-tātparya-tīkā, together with the meagre fragments to be found here and there in the Vārttika. Stcherbatsky2 in fact relied largely upon these quotations: and there is at present no other safe method of approach to the understanding of Dinnaga's teaching. This study is therefore devoted to an attempt to interpret these fragments of the Pramāna-samuccaya, fitting them so far as possible into the general framework of the Pramāna-samuccaya as outlined in Vidyābhūṣana's History of Indian Logic. The arrangement of the topics in that work seems to have been as follows, when Vidyābhūsana's somewhat confused account3 is interpreted and supplemented in the light of the references which he himself gives.

Chapter I.—Perception.

Chapter II.—Inference for oneself.

Chapter III.—Inference for another.

(Account in MSIL) Chapter IV.—Three characteristics of the middle term (probably the end of Chapter III; see HIL): and rejection of comparison.

(Account in HIL) Chapter IV.—Reason and example.

(Account in MSIL) Chapter V.—Rejection of Verbal Testimony.

(Account in HIL) Chapter V.—Apoha. This is given as the general heading. But the following topics appear to be treated as belonging to this chapter:

 $^{^1}$ It is not Uddyotakara's habit to quote. He was not a scholar like Vācaspati Miśra, and contents himself with the merest scraps of citation (though by a happy chance he gives us, on one occasion, a couple of lines from the Buddhist $S\bar{u}tra$ of the Burden-bearer—NV, p. 342, l. 3).

² In le Muséon, n.s. vol. v, 1904. Rapports entre la théorie Bouddhique da la connaissance et l'enseignement des autres écoles philosophiques des Indes.

³ The account is not clear as regards the latter three of the six chapters into which the work is divided: and the account given of these three chapters in the *History of Indian Logic* differs from the account given in *Mediæval School of Indian Logic*.

Section 2.—Probable Arrangement of Topics in Dinnāga's 'Pramāna-samuccaya.'

Chapter I.—Perception (=NS, I, i, 4).

- (i) There are only two pramānas, viz. perception and inference.
 - (ii) Characterisation of Perception.
- (iii) Criticism of the definitions of perception given by
 (a) the Yogācāras, (b) the Sāmkhyas, (c) the Naiyāyikas. The
 Naiyāyikas' importation of manas as an indriya from the
 Vaišeṣikas. The indriyatva of manas connected with the
 question of the prameyatva of the qualities of atma, i.e. sukhādi.
 Failure of the Naiyāyika to provide a place in their account of
 samnikarṣa for the five 'višeṣanas' which are an essential part
 of the Vaišeṣika theory.

Chapter II.—Inference for oneself (=NS, I, i, 5).

- (i) Defined as knowledge derived through a mark of three kinds.
- (ii) The three kinds are (a) kārya, (b) svabhāva, (c) anupalabdhi.
 - ¹[(iii) śabda-pramāna is a case of anumāna (=NS, I, i, 7).]
 - (iv) What is the probandum (anumeya) of the inference?

Comparison.—A line is quoted in this connection as from Chapter IV, however.

Verbal Testimony.—One of the citations given in this connection is quoted as from Chapter II. The citation in question says that verbal testimony is included in perception and inference.

Law governing the middle term.—Here is quoted the well-known statement of the trairūpya—anumeye 'tha tattulye sadbhāvo nāstitā 'sati—but it is quoted as from Chapter II.

(Account in MSIL) Chapter VI.—Parts of a syllogism. (Chapter heading only given, on p. 85. No account at all is given of this chapter on p. 88 in connection with the accounts of the other chapters. It may be regarded as a mistake.)

(Account in HIL) Chapter VI.—Analogue, i.e. jāti.

¹ Position here conjectural. Vidyābhūṣaṇa puts this under V (iii) infra, but the quotation he gives is from this chapter.

[(v) The instrument (anumāna) of svārthānumiti defined as nāntariyakārtha-darśanam tadvidaļ.]

¹[(vi) The trairūpya —anumeye'tha tattulye sadbhāvo nāstitā 'sati.]

Chapter III.—Inference for another.

(i) Defined.

(ii) sādhya [or pratijñā (?)] defined.

"Dinnāga reviews the definitions of a proposition as given by Akṣapāda and the Mīmāmsaka."

(iii) Formal logic of the *trairūpya*. Valid and invalid reason. The nine types of inference. [paksa-dharmatā the common characteristic both of the hetu and of the hetvā-bhāsa.]

Chapter IV.—Hetu and Udāharaņa (=NS, I, i, 34-37).

(i) [Criticism of the definition of hetu in NS, I, i, 34.]

Affirmative and Negative Reason. Affirmative and Negative Example.

[(ii) Grāhya-dharmas tad-amsena vyāpto hetuh.]

[(iii) *Upamāna* as inference. Criticism of Vātsyāyana's interpretation of *NS*, I, i, 6.]

Chapter V.-Apoha.

(i) The six categories of the Vaiśeṣika [in the light of the apoha-vāda. Refutation of the Vaiśeṣika doctrine of sāmānya].

(ii) [Discussion of sādṛśya.] Upamāna as knowledge of sādṛśya [which may become the ground of an inference—see Chapter IV (iii) in this list of topics] is reducible either to perception [or testimony].

(iii) śabda [in the light of the apohavāda (for the statement that śabdapramāṇa is anumāna see Chapter II (iii) in this

list of topics)].

(iv) The trairūpya [in the light of the apohavāda (i.e., perhaps, the 'avadhāranas' implied in the statement of the trairūpya)].

¹ Vidyābhūṣaṇa puts this under V (iv) infra, but the quotation is from this chapter.

Chapter VI.—Jāti (=NS, Adhyāya V).

Statement of 14 jāti.

Note.—The above 'list of contents' to the Pramāna-samuccaya is in part conjectural, and goes beyond Vidyā-bhūṣaṇa's statements. I have indicated what is conjectural, or goes beyond Vidyābhūṣaṇa's statements, by the use of square brackets. Conjecture may seem out of place when the Tibetan version is physically accessible. But Vidyābhūṣaṇa's account is the only form in which the Tibetan version is as yet intellectually accessible—except to a very few Tibetan scholars.

SECTION 3.—Fragment A: DEFINITION OF PERCEPTION.

Fragment.

(i) PRATYAKSAM KALPANĀPODHAM.

NV, p. 44, l. 1. apare tu manyante pratyakṣaṁ kalpanāpodham iti.

NVT, p. 102, l. 1 (commenting on the above): samprati Dinnāgasya lakṣaṇam upanyasyati, APARA iti. Later on Vācaspati draws a distinction between the view of Dinnāga and that of Dharmakīrti:

NVT, p. 102, l. 17. na hi yathā samyag-jñānam adhikṛtya pratyakṣādi-lakṣanam kṛtam Kīrtinā tathā Dinnāgena, yenā-dhikārāj jñāne vyavatiṣṭheta kalpanāpodham iti bhāvah. That is, Dinnāga does not give this definition in connection with a general rubric of 'right apprehension,' as Dharmakīrti does: and so the phrase kalpanāpodham is not fixed by the context as referring to knowledge—as is the case in Dharmakīrti's work. Therefore Dinnāga is fairly open to the criticism urged in the Vārttika, p. 44, l. 17: sarve arthāh tarhi pratyakṣāh prāpnuvanti.¹

¹ Uddyotakara has interpreted kalpanāpoḍham to mean svarūpato na vyapadeśyam—no account can be given of it as ding-an-sich. But this applies to everything—so that everything will be pratyakṣa. This consequence is avoided if we make it clear, as Dharmakīrti does, that pratyakṣam means pratyakṣam jñānam. (pratyakṣa is subject to the ambiguity of the term 'perception,' and may refer either to the object

(ii) The explanation of the definition which Uddyotakara gives is a partial citation, and seems to be a citation from Dinnāga:

NV, p. 44, l. 2. atha keyam kalpanā? nāma-jāti-yojaneti. yat kila na nāmnābhidhīyate na ca jātyādibhir vyapadīsyate

VIŞAYA-SVARÜPĀNUVIDHĀYI PARICCHEDAKAM ĀTMA-SAŅVEDYAM Fragment.

tat pratyaksam iti.

The 'fiction of the understanding' consists in joining name and class to the thing. Perception is what is not designated by a name nor expressed by class-character, etc., "a self-conscious process which determines the object and conforms to the unique individual nature of the object."

(iii) Vācaspati Miśra says that the words $n\bar{a}maj\bar{a}ti$ -yojā $n\bar{a}$, etc., in the passage just cited give the answer, of the person who states the definition, to Uddyotakara's question: 'What is this $kalpan\bar{a}$?' (NVT, p. 102, l. 2. laksana- $v\bar{a}dina$ uttaram). The laksana- $v\bar{a}din$ seems to mean Dinnāga, though it might mean any person who supports the definition. If it is Dinnāga that is meant here, then the line cited just below is an additional fragment of Dinnāga:

NVT, p. 102, l. 9. ātmasamvedyam—svasamvedanād eva tasya kalpanā-rahitatvam² api. yathāha.

PRATYAKŞAM KALPANĀPODHAM PRATYAKŞEŅAIVA SIDDHYATĪ ti.

Fragment.

"It is just from the fact that the perception is conscious of itself that it is also known as devoid of ideal

perceived or to the perceptual apprehension as such.) I suppose it is avoided because kalpanāpodha could not then bear the interpretation suggested: it would mean apprehension which does not determine its object by way of kalpanā—not an apprehended object stripped of determinations.

¹ Cf. NK, p. 190, II. 5-6, and p. 191, II. 23-24. Also SDS, p. 36=

Cowell and Gough, p. 33.

² This is the reading of the Benares 1925 text. The older text mistakenly reads kalpanāhitatvam.

elements. As he puts it: 'It is through the perception itself that perception devoid of thought-determinations is proved.'" 1

SECTION 4.—Note to Fragment A: Vasubandhu's Definition of Perception.

NV, p. 42, l. 15. apare punar varņayanti—

TATO 'RTHĀD VIJÑĀNAM PRATYAKṢAM iti.

NVT, p. 99, l. 13. tad evan pratyakṣa-lakṣaṇam samarthya Vāsubandhavam tāvat pratyakṣa-lakṣaṇam vikalpayitum upanyasyati.

That is: Uddyotakara says:

"Some again say: 'Perception is knowledge arising from that (very) thing.'"

Vācaspati comments:

"Having thus established this (the Naiyāyika) definition of perception, he now cites the definition given by Vasubandhu in order to reduce it to a dilemma."

Uddyotakara explains the definition thus:

"Perception is that knowledge which arises from just that thing of which it is designated as the knowledge; and not from anything else" (yasyārthasya yad vijñānam vyapadiśyate, yadi tata eva tad bhavati nārthāntarād bhavati, tat pratyakṣam). His criticism (NV, p. 42, l. 15, and p. 43, last line) contains two interesting things. One is a statement that the definition had been interpreted² as excluding samvṛti-jñāna, i.e. the 'fictions of the understanding' with which the 'pure

¹ This is apparently an expression of the Bauddha theory that cognition carries self-awareness along with it—as against the Naiyāyika view that we recognise our own cognitions by inner-sense perception or mānasa-pratyakṣa. On the Naiyāyika view the existence of nirvikal-paka-jñāna is only known by inference, not being open to introspection (mānasa-pratyakṣa).

² There is nothing in what Uddyotakara says which need imply that Vasubandhu himself so interpreted it. He may have done so. But equally it may have been Dinnaga or some other commentator who gave this meaning to the definition. Thus interpreted, it teaches the

doctrine embodied in Dinnaga's definition.

percept' is overlaid. Thus (on the Bauddha view) such a whole as a pot would not be an object of perception, so defined: $r\bar{u}p\bar{a}dibhya$ utpannam $j\bar{n}\bar{a}nam$ ghatasya vyapadisyate,—na tato bhavisyatity apaksiptam. The knowledge which is designated as knowledge of the jar is knowledge arising from colours, etc.: and therefore it does not arise 'from just that thing of which it is designated as the knowledge.' Uddyotakara's retort is that the Bauddha theory that substances are nothing apart from qualities is baseless; and that the cognition arising from colour is in point of fact designated the knowledge of colour, and not the knowledge of a pot.

The other point of interest is Uddyotakara's concluding argument against the 'sūtra,' as he calls the definition of Vasubandhu (NV, p. 43, l. 13). He says: grāhya-grāhaka-jñānayor ayugapad-bhāvāj jñānam apratyakṣam syāt—"the knowledge would be other than perception, because the reality apprehended and the apprehending cognition will not be simultaneous." Vācaspati Miśra explains that the grāhya is the thing from which the knowledge arises; and that it is the cause of which the knowledge is the effect. The knowledge cognises as present its own cause: but its cause—being, quā cause, the antecedent of the knowledge which is the effect—is, as such, past. The cognition therefore is false: and, being false, it cannot be perception. He then cites (NVT, p. 101, l. 14) a couplet: yathā 'ha:

bhinna-kālam katham grāhyam iti ced, grāhyatām viduḥ hetutvam eva, tad-yuktam jñānākārārpaṇa-kṣamam.

"If you ask how that which is separated in time can be the object grasped, the answer is that being an object just means being a cause (of the knowledge); and that which has this property (of being a cause of the knowledge) has the capacity of bringing about a presentation or idea (jnankara)." The answer given in this citation is paraphrased by Vācaspati: bhinna-kālasyā 'pi sadṛśa-jnāna-jananam eva hi tasya taj-jnānam prati grāhyatvam, nānyat—even if the object is separate

in time (i.e. past), its production of a cognition like it and nothing else is what constitutes it the 'object' of that knowledge. Now this couplet is cited in the Sarva-darśana-samgraha1 as embodying the Sautrāntika (realist) reply to a Yogacāra (idealist) criticism: and it is implied later on2 that the doctrine of the Vaibhāṣikas corresponds to that of the Sautrāntikas, so that what is said of the one is in some respects applicable to the other. We know that Vasubandhu during a great part of his career was a follower of the Vaibhāṣika school, and adopted the Yogācara or vijnāna-vāda doctrine late in life under the influence of his brother Asanga. Is it not possible that he wrote his Tarka-śāstra as a Vaibhāṣika? If so, this couplet may well be his: as in fact seems to be the implication of the yathā 'ha with which Vācaspati here introduces it. This hypothesis would explain the persistent strain of realism in the Buddhist logic derived through Dinnaga from Vasubandhu.

[Another citation made by Vācaspati in the present passage is merely a statement of a logical principle borrowed from the Śloka-vārttika. yathā 'huḥ:—

niyamas tad-virodhāc ca kalpyate, nāvirodhinah.3 "As has

1 =Cowell and Gough, p. 28. My text, however, has ca vyakter in the second line, in place of tadyuktam; and this reading is implied in

Gough's translation.

² =Cowell and Gough, p. 33 ad fin. SDS represents both as realists: the difference being that the Sautrāntika held the real corresponding to presentation to be inferred, whereas the Vaibhāṣika denied that inference was possible in such a case, and maintained that things (objects, artha) are of two kinds, grāhya and adhyavaseya. The SDS then proceeds to explain grāhya by attributing to the Vaibhāṣika precisely that view of perception which we find in Dinnāga—the idealist. And the distinction between the grāhya and the adhyavaseya is found in Dharmakīrti and Dharmottara, the logical heirs of Dinnāga. It has been commonly recognised that Dinnāga's logic is not really consistent with idealism. Is not the explanation perhaps that it was not an idealistic but a realistic logic that he inherited, and that he never succeeded in reconciling it with his own and his master's (later) idealism?

³ Śl. Vārt., anumānā, 55. But the Chaukhamba text reads vipakṣāc ca, with a variant viruddhāc ca, in place of virodhāc ca. Kumārila is defining the pratijñā, S is P, of an inference. This, he says, means that S is not non-P; it does not, however, preclude S from having other

properties besides P, provided they do not contradict P.

been said, 'a universal statement is precluded from contradiction of what is predicated therein, and not from what does not contradict it.' "]

SECTION 5.—Fragment B: Manas AS AN ORGAN OF SENSE.

NA SUKHĀDI PRAMEYAN VĀ MANO VĀSTĪNDRIYĀNTARAM Fragment. ANIŞEDHĀD UPĀTTAN CED ANYENDRIYA-RUTAN VŖTHĀ.

The two lines are separately cited by Vācaspati, but Vidyā-Identification. bhūṣaṇa identifies them with a passage in the first chapter of the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya* and cites them as forming one couplet. The meaning is: "Either pleasure, etc., are not Translation.

objects of knowledge, or else manas must be an additional sense-organ." If you maintain (as Vātsyāyana does) that the sūtra accepts manas as a sense-organ on the ground that it does not deny this, then why does the sūtra-kāra put himself to the trouble of mentioning the other sense-organs? (the mention is useless, in virtue of the tantra-yukti of 'anumata' to which Vātsyāyana appeals: for the other sense-organs, no less than manas, are mentioned in the sister-śāstra; and if the sūtra-kāra took manas for granted on this ground, he should also have taken the other sense-organs for granted). In the first line Dinnaga is putting the dilemma which compels the Vaiśesika and the Naiyāyika to treat manas as a sense-organ. Both systems treat pleasure, pain, desire, cognition, etc., as qualities of the soul directly cognised, and as (like the qualities of other substances) objects of knowledge (prameya). If they are prameya, and perceptually cognised, it is necessary to invent an indriya for their perception, namely manas, as an organ of 'inner sense.'

I take it that Dinnāga's criticism here amounts to a charge of futility against the $s\bar{u}tra-k\bar{a}ra$. The $s\bar{u}tra-k\bar{a}ra$ ought to have seen that he must make manas into an indriya, seeing that he has treated the psychical 'qualities' as prameya. But as a matter of fact the $s\bar{u}tra-k\bar{a}ra$ had not realised this plain consequence of his position. And Vātsyāyana, instead

of deducing the *indriyatva* of *manas* from the *prameyatva* of *sukhādi* (as Praśastapāda deduced it from *Vaiśeṣika Sūtra*, V, ii, 15), falls back on this indefensible appeal to a *tantrayukti* in order to import into his own system, *ab extra*, what is really implied in it already.

Source.

The passages in the NVT in which these two lines are cited are:

NVT, p. 97, l. 1. tad idam uktam Dinnāgena na sukhādi prameyam vā mano vāstīndriyāntaram. na ca tat sambhavati, ghrānādi-sūtrena vibhāgaparena niṣedhād iti bhāvah.

That is: "This is Dinnaga's point in the line 'either pleasure, etc., are not prameya, or else manas is another indriya.' But this is not possible (i.e. that manas should be an indriya), because it would contradict NS, I, i, 12, the object of which is to give an enumeration of the indriya's (and this enumeration does not comprise manas)."

NVT, p. 97, l. 28. tad dūṣiṭaṁ Dinnāgena aniṣedhād upāttaṁ ced anyendriya-rutaṁ vṛthā. 'tad' here refers to NBh, p. 13, l. 9 (the appeal to the tantra-yukti of anumata. As a matter of fact, however, Vātsyāyana uses other arguments as well; but it must be admitted that he does not succeed in proving that the sūtra-kāra recognised manas as an indriya).

Section 6.—Fragment C: Is the Organ in Contact with the Object, in Vision?

NVT, p. 76, l. 28. yathoktam Dinnāgena:

Sāntara-grahaņam na syāt prāptau, Jñāne 'Dhikasya Ca,
bahir vartitvād indriyasyopapannam sāntara-grahanam iti
ced, ata uktam:

Line 2.

Line 1.

ADHIŞTHĀNĀD BAHIR NĀKŞAM. . . .

kimtv adhisthāna-deśa evendriyam. kutaļ ?

. . . TAC-CIKITSĀDI-YOGATAḤ.

Line 3. satyapi ca bahir-bhāve na śakti-viṣaye¹ kṣaṇe Line 4. Yadi ca syāt tadā paśyed apy unmīlya nimīlanāt

1 Read saktir vişaye. See next note.

yadi ca syād, unmīlya nimīlita-nayano 'pi rūpam paśyet. unmīlanād asti bahir indriyam iti.

The sense of these two couplets, when disentangled from the interspersed comment, is clear except for the second halves of lines 1 and 3. There is a long discussion dealing with this and cognate difficulties in the Nyāya-vārttika passage (pp. 35-38) on which Vacaspati is here commenting. Uddyotakara gives various reasons which have been brought to prove that the organs of sense, and in particular the visual organ, work without getting at the object (aprāpya-kāritva). One of these reasons is santara-grahanat—the reason here adduced by Dinnaga. Uddyotakara says this may either mean (a) 'because it grasps an object at a distance,' or (b) 'because it grasps the object with the intervening space.' Vācaspati cites Dinnāga in connection with Uddyotakara's refutation of 'sāntara-grahanād aprāpya-kāritva' in the latter sense. Another of the reasons mentioned by Uddyotakara as urged against the view that the visual organ acts through contact with its object is prthutara-grahanāt, 'because it apprehends things bigger than itself.' This seems to be the meaning of Dinnāga's jñāne 'dhikasya ca in the first line of this fragment. But the remainder of Uddyotakara's discussion goes beyond what is urged in this fragment on the one hand; and on the other hand Uddyotakara does not deal with the objections raised in lines 2-4. Therefore Dinnaga can hardly be the only, or even the principal, critic whom Uddyotakara has in view.

"There would not be apprehension of the object together Translation. with intervening space if the visual organ were in contact with its object; and, if there is apprehension of what exceeds (the eye in size), (such apprehension is not to be explained by a distinction between the 'visual organ' and the 'eye,' for) the 'visual organ' does not go forth from its place (the 'eye')—since it is to this (the definite part of the body called the eye) that medical treatment and so on is directed (on the assumption that the eye is the visual organ). And even if we

grant that the 'visual organ' might exist outside its bodily site 'the eye,' it would not have the power to act on the momentary existent which is its object.¹ And if it could, a man who had opened his eyes and then shut them would still see (when his eyes were shut)."

Section 7.—Fragment D: Criticism of a Point in the Vaisesika Account of the Perceptibility of Substance.

Source.

NVT, p. 129, l. 22. na ca samuccīyamānāvadhāraṇam Dinnāgo mene, yad evam ūce vaišeṣika-lakṣaṇa-dūṣaṇāvasare:

Prose fragment. YADI RÜPAM EVA CÄKŞUŞAN TATO NA DRAVYAN CÄKŞUŞAN SYÄT TATHĀ CA MAHAD-ANEKA-DRAVYA-SAMAVAYĀD RUPĀC • COPALABDHIR ITI DRAVYA-CĀKŞUŞATVĀBHIDHĀNAN VYĀ-HANYETA

—iti. atra hi pūrvavad dravya-sahita-rūpam eva cākṣuṣam na gandha-rasādīti śakyam samuccīyamānāvadhāraṇam.

That is: Dinnāga did not hold the doctrine of aggregative restriction (which Dharmakīrti applies to the interpretation of the *trairūpya*), since he speaks thus when he is criticising the *Vaišesika* definition (of perception):

Translation of fragment.

"If colour only is the object of vision then substance cannot be an object of vision: and thus there would be contradiction of the assertion of the visibility of substance which is made in the words 'and perception arises from colour and from inherence in a substance which has magnitude and is composed of many parts."

Vācaspati explains that, as tat-tulya eva in the trairūpya has

¹ The text reads bahir-bhāvena. I have divided bahir-bhāve na. Further, I have rendered as if saktir viṣaye. I take the meaning to be that on the assumption that the 'visual beam 'goes out to its object, it would never reach the object: for by the time it got there a new momentary existent would have taken the place of the original existent which the 'visual beam' went forth for to see. (This reverses the paradox which modern theories of vision—based on light coming from the object—carry with them. On the modern theory of vision what we see is always past. Dinnāga's point on the contrary is that what we see is always future.)

been taken to mean 'only in the sapakṣa besides the pakṣa,' so here the Vaiśeṣika might have replied to Dinnāga's criticism by saying that the eva conveys an 'aggregative restriction,' so that in saying 'only colour is visible' the meaning might be 'only colour besides substance is visible'—the intention being to exclude smell, taste, etc., from the sphere of visibility, and not substance.

The fragment being in prose cannot be from the *Pramāṇa*- Identificasamuccaya (unless Vācaspati is paraphrasing verse into prose).

It might come from the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya-vṛtti*, a commentary attributed to Diṇṇāga himself. Vidyābhūṣaṇa cites
passages from the first chapter of the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya*,
which quote not only NS, I, i, 4 with the *Bhāṣya* thereon, but
also a version of VS, III, i, 18; and VS, V, ii, 15, in the form
in which we have it, together with "the explanatory portion
of the *Vaiśeṣika* definition"—the latter having some
similarity to Praśastapāda's words. The citations embodied
in the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya* are left unmetrical by Diṇṇāga,
apparently.

The citation made by Dinnāga in the present passage is from the Vaiśeṣika sūtra (mahad-aneka-dravya-samavayād rūpāc copalabdhiḥ, VS, IV, i, 6). Cf. PBh, p. 186, l. 15. The three conditions which Praśastapāda there lays down for the perception of substance are apparently a true interpretation of the sūtra.

Section 8.—Fragment E: Testimony is not a Separate Source of Knowledge.

NVT, p. 138, l. 5. atra śabdań pramānāntaram asahamāno Source. Dinnāgas tal lakṣaṇaṁ vikalpya ākṣipati. āptopadesa iti. . . . Ibid., l. 19. yathoktaṁ Bhadantena:

ĀPTA-VĀKYĀVISAMVĀDA-SĀMĀNYĀD ANUMĀNATĀ Fragment.
—iti.

NV, p. 63, l. 13. āptopadeśa iti kim āptānām avisamvādit-Context. vam vā pratipadyate, ahosvid arthasya tathā-bhāva iti. yady

āptānām avisamvaditvam pratipadyate, tad anumānāt, arthasya tathā-bhāvah, so 'pi pratyaksena. yadā hy ayam artham pratyaksenopalabhate, tadā tathā-bhāvam arthasya pratipadyata iti.

That is: Dinnāga, not admitting testimony as a separate instrument of knowledge, attacks the definition (of NS, I, i. 7—āptopadeśaḥ śabdaḥ) by means of a dilemma which is stated in the Vārttika passage commencing āptopadeśa (i.e. the passage here cited).

The dilemma is: 'trustworthy authority' means either that the trustworthy person speaks truly, or else it means that the thing spoken is trustworthy and true. If it means the former—the credibility of the person—the belief is derived from inference. If it means the latter—the truth of the statement—this is a matter of perception: for it is when the person apprehends in perception the thing (about which the statement is made) that he realises the truth of the statement.

Dinaga in the present fragment is dealing with the former horn of the dilemma: which is that 'credible testimony' means the assertions of persons who are credible. He says that the belief in any particular statement then rests on an inference:

Translation.

"The belief is inferential, the ground of it being the common character of corroboratedness belonging to the statements of the 'trustworthy' person."

Identification. This fragment is identified by Vidyābhūṣaṇa (HIL, p. 288, note 1) with a passage in the second chapter of the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya*.

Section 9.—Fragment F: What is the 'Probandum' ('anumeya') in Inference?

NVT, p. 120, l. 10. atra Dinnāgena dhūmād agni-rūpa-dharmāntarānumānam agnideśayoh sambandhānumānam ca dūṣayitvā 'gni-viśiṣtadeśānumānam samarthitam. tathā cāha—kecid dharmāntaram meyam lingasyāvyabhicārataḥ, sambandham kecid icchanti siddhatvād dharma-dharminoh.

Fragment. Line 1. Line 2 LINGAM DHARME PRASIDDHAM CET KIM ANYAT TENA MÏYATE? Line 3.
ATHA DHARMIŅI, TASYAIVA KIM-ARTHAM NĀNUMEYATĀ? Line 4.
SAMBANDHE 'PI DVAYAM NĀSTI, ṢAṢṬHĪ SRŪYETA TAD-VATI. Line 5.
AVĀCYO 'NUGRHĪTATVĀN NA CĀSAU LINGA-SAMGATAḤ. Line 6.

—na hi sambandha-dharmatayā lingam pramīyate, api tu deśa-samgatam ity arthah.

LINGASYĀVYABHICĀRAS TU DHARMEŅĀNYATRA DŖŚYATE Line 7. TATRA PRASIDDHAM TAD-YUKTAM DHARMIŅAM GAMAYIŞYATI Line 8.

-iti.

That is: Dinnaga criticises first the view that what we infer from smoke is another quality, viz. fire, and secondly

the view that we infer the relation between fire and place; and he accepts the view that we infer the place qualified by fire. Thus he says:

Translation of fragment.

"Some hold that another quality is the thing to be inferred Line 1. from the invariability of the syllogistic mark (middle term).

"Others will have it that the relation is inferred, on the Line 2. ground that the quality (P, fire) and the subject (S, the hill) are already known (and therefore cannot be things to be inferred. Fire as such is not a thing to be inferred, nor is the hill as such).

"If the syllogistic mark (M, smoke) has been given before in Line 3. the quality (P, fire), what different thing is it that is said to be inferred through the mark? (P must have been presented before, ex hypothesi, when we experienced the concomitance between M and P).

"Orifit was experienced in the subjects or possessors of fire Line 4. (such as the hearth), why is not just this (the fiery hearth, the fire of the hearth) that is inferred? 1

¹ Fire in general cannot be the thing to be inferred, because fire in general is already known. And the fire of past experience, as particularised by residence in the hearth, etc., of course cannot be the probandum—we do not infer the fire of the hearth from the smoke on the hill. (dharmin commonly means S, the subject in which the property is to be inferred. But it also means in general a property-possessor, and so may apply to the sapakṣa, XP, as well as to the pakṣa, S.)

Line 5.

"In the relation, on the other hand, there is not the double aspect (which marks the genuine anumeya).\(^1\) And you would use the genitive case in referring to something possessing something else\(^2\) (so that the Proposition to be proved should take the form parvatasy\(\bar{a}gnir\) asti, there is hill's fire—instead of parvate 'gnir asti, there is fire on the hill).

Line 6.

"The relation is not intended to be referred to by the speaker, since it is merely implicit in the statement.³ And it is not the relation that is concomitant with the syllogistic mark (M, smoke).⁴

1 Cf. Sl. Vārt., anumāna-pariccheda, 32: na cākāra-dvayam tasya sādhya-sādhana-bhāg bhavet. The anumeya is both gamaka and gamya, both M and—problematically—P. In other words it is the ekadesin which has two ekadesas, as sādhana and as sādhya. But the relation between hill and fire does not have fire as one aspect and smoke as another. It is the hill (of which fire is to be proved) that possesses both smoke and—problematically—fire.

 2 Cf. the commentators on Pāṇini, II, iii, 50, saṣṭhī śeṣe. The sixth inflection, i.e. genitive, expresses mere relation, e.g. that between a thing and its possessor. It does not express a $k\bar{a}raka$ -function. The locative on the other hand does express a $k\bar{a}raka$ -function, viz. the

adhikarana of the action.

s Cf. Sl. Vārt., loc. cit.: tasmād artha-grhītatvān matub-arthasya gamyatā, na svātantryena mantavyā. What if the Proposition is put in the form parvato vahnimān, the hill is fire-possessing? Does not the affix-matup, the possessive affix, express mere relation, as the genitive case-inflection does? The reply given by Dinnāga and by Kumārila seems to be that at any rate the relation, relegated to expression in a mere suffix, cannot claim the status of a 'term' in the inference.

4 Cf. Sl. Vārt., loc. cit., 31: na cāpy anugamas tena lingasyeha nidarśyate; and the comment: udāharane 'pi lingasya na sambandhenānugamam darśayanti. The major premise does not assert that where there is smoke there is relation (between hill and fire). The comment which Vācaspati Miśra inserts after line 6 takes a slightly different view of the meaning—"for the syllogistic mark is not apprehended as a property of the relation: it is connected with the place"—i.e. he takes the reference here to be to pakṣa-dharmatā, in the sense of residence of the middle term in the minor (and not in the major, as Pārthasārathi Miśra, the commentator on the Śloka-vārttika cited above, understands the parallel line in Kumārila's discussion). That is, we do not say that the relation is smoky: we say that the hill is smoky. As anumeya means indifferently S or P (really both together), either interpretation is possible.

"It is with the quality (P, fire) that the mark is seen, in Line 7. other instances, to be concomitant.

"And being found in those other cases it will prove the Line 8. subject-as-connected-with-that-quality here (it will prove S-as-P)."

This is the topic discussed in Nyāyā-vārttika, pp. 52-54, and Parallel pas-Śloka-vārttika, anumāna-pariecheda, verses 23-34: both pas-sages being closely parallel to the present fragment and written with Dinnāga's discussion in view. In fact, some of the lines in this fragment are only intelligible in the light of what Kumārila says.

Vidyābhūṣaṇa (HIL, p. 281) gives the Tibetan version of Identification. these eight lines as from *Pramāna-samuccaya*, Chapter II.

Section 10.—Fragment G: Definition of 'Anumāna' or the Instrument of Inferential Knowledge.

NV. p. 56, l. 14. apare tu bruvate:

NĀNTARĪYAKĀRTHA-DARŚANAM TAD-VIDO 'NUMĀNAM

Prose fragment.

—iti. asyārthaḥ: yo'rtho yam artham antareṇa na bhavati, sa nāntarīyakaḥ: nāntarīyakas cāsāv arthaś ceti nāntarīyakārthaḥ: tasya darśanam tav-vido 'numānam. yas tam veda. tan, nāntarīyako'yam iti.

That is:

§ 10.

Others, again, say:

"The experience of a thing which is inseparably connected Translation with another thing is the instrument of inference for one who of fragment. knows that it is inseparably connected."

The meaning is: a thing which does not exist without another thing is 'inseparably connected.' The compound $n\bar{a}ntar\bar{\imath}yak\bar{a}rtha$ is a $karma-dh\bar{a}raya$ compound, i.e. $n\bar{a}ntar\bar{\imath}yaka$ is in the position of adjective qualifying artha, and the compound as a whole is substantival. Tad in the compound tad-vidah means 'that this is inseparably connected.' (Uddyotakara's criticism is to the effect that the

karma-dhāraya compound is objectionable because the second member, 'thing,' is superfluous—since what is inseparably connected cannot but be a 'thing';¹ and that the addition 'for one who knows this' is also superfluous, since such knowledge is already implied in calling the thing nāntarīyaka.² The definition ought therefore to be reduced to: nāntarīyaka-darśanam anumānam.)

Identification of fragment.

Vidyābhūṣaṇa does not notice this fragment. But Vācas-pati Miśra's statements at NVT, p. 127, l. 1 and l. 12 (see here next fragment, and fragment P) attribute the definition beyond possibility of doubt to Dinnāga, and seem to imply clearly that it is given in a passage immediately preceding that in which the next fragment—anumeye 'tha, etc.—occurs: that is, in Chapter II of the Pramāṇa-samuccaya. But the present fragment is in prose, irreducible to anuṣtubh metre. We must suppose either that there are unmetrical passages or phrases embodied in the Pramāṇa-samuccaya, or else that this comes from the vṛtti—which must then be in organic connection with the Pramāṇa-samuccaya itself, and not a commentary subsequently composed by Dinnāga.

SECTION 11.—Fragment H: THE THREE CHARACTERS OF A VALID MIDDLE TERM.

NV, p. 58, 1. 2. apare tu manyante:

Fragment (one line).

ANUMEYE 'THA TAT-TULYE SADBHĀVO NĀSTITĀ 'SATI

-ity anumānam.

That is: some again hold that the instrument of inference consists in:—

Translation of fragment.

"The presence of the middle term in the subject of the

¹ Keith, *ILA*, p. 104 ad fin. seems to have taken this to mean that a thing (on the *Bauddha* view) cannot but be inseparably connected.

² He adds by way of illustration: "For an inhabitant of Nārikela-dvīpa, on seeing smoke, does not think of it as 'nāntarīyaka,' inseparably connected." Dr. Jhā (transl., vol. i, p. 188) adds the query—"where there is no fire?" and this would explain the illustration.

inference; its presence again in what is like the subject of the inference; and its absence in what is not (like the subject)."

NVT, p. 127, l. 12. tad anena Dinnāgasya laksanam dūsa- Identification yitvā 'nyeşām laksanam dūsitam. samprati Dinnāgasya svakīya-laksana-prapañcārtham vākyam anumeye 'tha tat-tulya ityādy upanyasya dūsayati—apare tv iti.

That is: by thus refuting the definition (of anumāna—see preceding fragment) given by Dinnaga, he has refuted definitions given by others. Now he cites and refutes the formulaanumeye 'tha tat-tulya, etc.-which Dinnaga gives in explanation of his definition.

Vidyābhūṣana (HIL, p. 288, n. 2) gives the Tibetan version of this line as from Chapter II of the Pramāna-samuccaya. Vācaspati in the passage just cited states that it is an amplification or exposition of the definition of anumana given in the preceding fragment—which may, therefore, also be assigned to Chapter II (perhaps of the vrtti).

The importance of the fragment is indicated by the fact Bearings of that Uddyotakara devotes a considerable passage (NV, pp. 58-59) to criticism of it. It is Dinnaga's formula for the trairūpya, parallel to the couplet which occurs in Prasastapada's Bhāṣya, p. 200, l. 19:

yad anumeyena sambaddham prasiddham ca tad-anvite tad-abhāve ca nāsty eva, tal lingam anumāpakam.

The three notes of a 'nantarīyakārtha' are presence in the paksa, presence in the sapaksa, and absence in the vipaksa. The formula belongs to a time when the doctrine of vyāpti had not yet developed. Dinnaga combines it with that doctrine, and thereby exposes the formula to the criticism brought by Uddyotakara: a criticism which turns on the fact that anumeya is now taken in two senses at once—as S (minor) and as P (major).

SECTION 12.—(NOTE TO FRAGMENT H): A SEPTENARY OF SYLLOGISMS.

In the passage which concludes Uddyotakara's criticism of this formula of the $trair\bar{u}pya$, a doctrine of a septenary of possible types of syllogism is represented as following from the application of this formula. The context makes it plain that the doctrine is Dinnāga's; but it is not clear how far it is stated in Dinnāga's own words. Uddyotakara states the same doctrine a second time, in almost the same words, in another connection (NV, p. 131, l. 18).

NV, p. 59, l. 11. yad apy eka-dvi-pada-paryudāsena saptikāsambhave sat-pratisedham uktvā tri-laksano hetur abhidhīyate, etad api . . . ayuktam.

That is: there are seven possibilities, and he rejects six (as invalid middle terms) on the ground of failing to satisfy one or two of the three clauses of the trairūpya; the seventh (which satisfies all three clauses) is called 'the reason with three characteristics' (and is alone valid).

The seven possibilities are:

- 1. Resident in pakṣa (absent in sapakṣa, present in vipakṣa).
- 2. Resident in sapakṣa (absent in pakṣa, present in vipakṣa).
- 3. Absent in vipakṣa (absent in pakṣa, absent in sapakṣa).

The above three fail to satisfy two clauses.

- 4. Present in pakṣa, resident in sapakṣa (but not absent in vipakṣa).
- 5. Present in pakṣa, absent in vipakṣa (but not present in sapakṣa).
- 6. Present in sapakṣa, absent in vipakṣa (but not present in pakṣa).

These three fail to satisfy one clause. Uddyotakara maintains that, on the Buddhist's own showing, arguments which really come under head 4 are valid; and that arguments

¹ Dr. Jhā (transl., p. 371 footnote) reads into this passage a statement that this doctrine comes from a *Bauddha* 'vārttika.' But Uddyotakara is plainly referring to his own Vārttika on I, i, 5.

§§ 12-13. SEVEN TYPES OF SYLLOGISM. VASUBANDHU 25

under head 5 are valid, if there is no sapakṣa. Heads 4 and 5 are kevalānvayin and kevala-vyatirekin, in case there is no vipakṣa (in the former case) and no sapakṣa (in the latter case).

7. The trilakṣaṇa-hetu — present in pakṣa, present in sapakṣa, absent in vipakṣa.

It may be presumed that this doctrine is taught in the second chapter of the $Pram\bar{a}na$ -samuccaya. The scheme of seven types differs in principle from the scheme of nine types set out in fragment J, q.v.

SECTION 13.—VASUBANDHU AS A CRITIC OF THE Nyāya.

(Introductory to fragments from Chapters III and IV of the *Pramāna-samuccaya*.)

Chapter III deals with 'inference for another' (parārthānumana), which is the rubric corresponding to the pañcāvayavavākya, the syllogism and its five members, in Naiyāyika works. Dinnāga, like Praśastapāda, emphasises the distinction between inference as such and inference as expressed in words; and he criticises the definitions of the 'members' of the syllogism given in the Nyāya Sūtra on the ground that they fail to keep this distinction clear (see fragment L). But Dinnāga was not the first Buddhist critic of these definitions. A writer, 'Subandhu,' who may reasonably be identified with Vasubandhu, criticises the definitions given in the Nyāya Sūtra of Proposition, Reason, and Exemplification (the first three 'members' of the syllogism), as is clear from the following passages of the Vārttika and Tātparya-tīkā:

NV, p. 139, l. 14. tad etasmin avayava-traye evam lakṣanenopapādite teṣām trayo durvibhāvā ity anena vākyena mahānaiyāyikatvam ātmanah khyāpitam bhavati.

NVT, p. 205, l. 26. atra Subandhunā pratijādayas trayo 'vayavā durvihitā Akṣapāda-lakṣaṇenety uktam: tad dūṣayati tad etasminn iti.

That is: Uddyotakara says (ironically) that the writer who

states that three confused definitions of these members are given when Proposition, Reason, and Exemplification are thus defined, only shows by this statement what a great logician he himself is. Vācaspati adds that in this passage Uddyotakara is criticising the statement made by 'Subandhu,' to the effect that the three members—Proposition, etc.—are badly formulated by Akṣapāda's definitions.

Who was Subandhu? Dr. Jhā says: "It has been suggested that this name should be Vasubandhu, but the Tātparya-tīkā often speaks of 'saubandhavam laksanam,' which shows that there was a Buddhist logician Subandhu" (transl., But there seems to be no other vol. i, p. 394, on NS, I, i. 37). trace of this supposed 'Subandhu,' and the reasonable supposition is that in these passages Vācaspati abbreviates Vasubandhu to Subandhu: 1 just as he invariably speaks of Dharmakīrti as Kīrti. Vasubandhu's definition of perception is given at NV, p. 42, l. 15, and in that case Vācaspati (NVT, p. 99, 1. 13) gives him the benefit of his full name—Vāsubandhavam pratyaksa-laksanam. A definition of vāda is given at NV, p. 151, l. 20, and here Vācaspati (NVT, p. 218, l. 9) calls it saubandhavam laksanam. (Jhā's note here suggests that Subandhu may be Vasubandhu, after all: and he thinks that 'Subandhu' must be the author of the Vāda-vidhi referred to by name at NV, p. 121, l. 2.—Jhā's transl., vol. i, p. 441 note.) A definition of pratijñā, Proposition, is given as from the Vāda-vidhi in the NV passage just referred to, viz. p. 121, 1. 2. Whether 'Subandhu' is the author of this work, as he is stated by Vācaspati to be the author of the definition of vāla (NV, p. 151, and NVT, p. 218, above referred to), is not perfectly clear,2 but seems highly probable.

 1 Similarly Vāmana, Kāvyalāṅkāra-sūtra-vṛtti, III, ii, 2, is quoted in Vidyābhūṣaṇa, HIL, p. 267, as having Subandhu for Vasubandhu.

² There is a doubt as to the reading at NV, p. 156, l. 17. Dr. Jhā reads the textual $v\bar{u}d\bar{a}bhidh\bar{a}nam$ as $v\bar{u}da-vidh\bar{a}nam$, which latter he takes as an alternative title of the work $V\bar{u}da-vidhi$. See his translation, vol. i, p. 454 footnote. The alternative title $v\bar{u}da-vidh\bar{u}na$ only occurs at NV, p. 120, l. 6, in a reference to a $v\bar{u}da-vidh\bar{u}na-t\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, so far as I know.

Vidyābhūṣaṇa, on the authority of Sugiura, states that "when Hwen-Thsang was travelling in India he saw three works on the art of debate attributed to Vasubandhu. The Sanskrit originals of these works, as well as their Chinese versions, are now lost. The works were styled in Chinese: (1) Ronki (vāda-vidhi—the method of debate), (2) Ronshiki (vāda-mārga—the course of debate), and (3) Ronshin (vāda-kauśala—the expedients of debate" (HIL, p. 267). He also gives an account (ibid.) of a Tarka-śāstra attributed to Vasubandhu, of which a Chinese version exists: and in the first chapter of this Vasubandhu is said to deal with the five members of the syllogism, pratijñā, etc.

The evidence then is to the effect that Vācaspati's Subandhu is Vasubandhu, and that he is (perhaps) the author of the $V\bar{a}da$ -vidhi quoted by Uddyotakara: and of definitions of perception, of $v\bar{a}da$, and perhaps of $pratij\bar{n}\bar{a}$, quoted and

¹ The definition of pratijňā given as from the Vāda-vidhi is sādhyā-bhidhānam pratijňā (NV, p. 121, l. 2). At NV, p. 161, l. 14, a definition of pakṣa is given—pakṣo yaḥ sādhayitum iṣṭah—which Dr. Jhā, in a footnote to his translation, p. 331, says is "put forward by the Bauddha logician Subandhu." He does not say what authority he has for attributing this to 'Subandhu.' Vācaspati merely attributes it to a Bauddha—Bhadantenānyathā lakṣaṇam pranītam (NVT, p. 184, l. 11). [Another definition is given of pakṣa at NV, p. 119, l. 4: vicāraṇāyām isto 'rthah pakṣaḥ.]

The metrical definition of pakṣa which is given at NV, p. 119, ll. 15-16 -sādhyatvenepsitah pakṣo viruddhārthānirākṛtah-is characterised by Vācaspati at NVT, p. 187, l. 14 as sthānāntarīyam Bhadantasya lakṣanam. It is not clear who the Bauddha is to whom Vācaspati is referring; but it looks as if it were the same 'Bhadanta' who gave the former definition, viz. pakṣo yaḥ sādhayitum iṣṭaḥ. The metrical definition looks like a fragment of Dinnaga (a) because of the anustubh metre; (b) because the addition viruddhārthānirākrta teaches the doctrine of pakṣābhāsa found in the Nyāya-praveśa ascribed to Dinnāga, and the definition is in meaning identical with Prasastapada's at PBh, p. 233, last line (and resemblance to Praśastapāda is a mark of Dinnāga's writings); and (c) because, as Jhā points out (transl., p. 338 footnote), it also resembles Dharmakīrti's definition in the Nyāyabindu: svarūpenaiva svayam-iṣṭo 'nirākṛtaḥ. If it is from Dinnāga it might come from the third chapter of the Pramāṇa-samuccaya. But Vidyābhūṣaṇa (HIL, p. 282, n. 2) cites as from that chapter two Tibetan lines, and says that "the Sanskrit original should run thus: svarūpenaiva criticised by Uddyotakara. We may further conclude that Vasubandhu preceded Dinnāga in his criticism of the definitions of Proposition, Reason, and Exemplification given in the Nyāya-sūtra.

SECTION 14. — Fragment I: (i) DEFINITION OF 'INFERENCE FOR ANOTHER' (parārthānumāna). (ii) A PROOF MUST BE ACCEPTED BY BOTH PARTIES.

Nyāya-ratnākara, p. 252 (commenting on Śloka-vārttika, nirālambana-vāda, verses 145-146): bhavadīyenāpi—

Fragment (i) (one line).

PARĀRTHĀNUMĀNAM TU SVADŖSŢĀRTHA-PRAKĀŚAKAM

iti laksanena sva-pratipannam eva prāśnikebhyah pratipādanīyam.

That is: "It is something that a person has himself apprehended that is to be conveyed to questioners—even on your own definition:—

nirdesyah svayam-istah svadharmini pratyaksärthänumänena cäpta-väcä 'niräkrtah.''

At NV, p. 120, 1.2 ff. Uddyotakara attacks the introduction of the word srayam into a Bauddha definition. It looks at first as if the svayam criticised were part of the second or metrical definition abovefor Uddyotakara says svayam sādhyatvenepsita iti. (With this addition the definition comes close to the Nyāyabindu definition, and also to Vidyābhūṣaṇa's reconstruction of the two lines from the Pramāṇasamuccaya. Perhaps after all this line is the original of one of those two lines?) At p. 120, l. 7, however, we are told that the author of the Vāda-vidhāna-tīkā defends the addition of svayam to the definition. The definition cited at NV, p. 116, l. 14 is quoted as pakso yah sādhavitum istah—without svayam. And yet it is apparently with reference to this phrase sādhayitum iṣṭaḥ that Uddyotakara criticises the defence of the use of srayam: for he makes a special point of the use here of the infinitive, sadhayitum. But then again the infinitive may perhaps be considered to be implied in the phrase sadhyatvenepsitah. I must admit that I cannot see any further into this haze. But it looks as if Uddyotakara regarded the two definitions as for purposes of criticism two versions of one and the same view: the former erring by saying too little, and the latter by saying too much (NV, p. 120, l. 1). I think that Vācaspati meant to attribute them both to one person; and on the whole I incline to the view that Dinnaga was this person (this latter opinion being partly derived from an impression—not easy to justify that Vācaspati uses 'Bhadanta' specifically of Dinnāga).

'Inference for another sets forth an object which has been Translation apprehended by oneself."

Pārthasārathi Miśra is referring in bhavadīya to Dinnāga, Context. whom he mentions by name more than once in the context. On p. 250 (commenting on verse 131, loc. cit.) he has said: bhavadvrddhair eva hi Dinnāgācāryair yo Vādi-Prativādi-Fragment NIŚCITO HETUḤ SA SĀDHANAM ity uktam. That is: "Your own (ii) (prose). authority, the doctor Dinnaga, has said: 'A proof is a reason accepted by both parties to the discussion." And at p. 257 he again cites Dinnaga by name (see fragment P below). Kumārila is arguing in this section of the nirālambana-vāda (which is probably directed largely against arguments urged • by Dinnaga in the \$\bar{A}lambana-pariksa\$) that the \$Bauddhawhose scepticism extends to reasoning itself—is inconsistent in using reasoning to confute his opponents. The Bauddha is represented as replying that so long as his opponent believes in reasoning it does not matter whether he (the Bauddha) himself believes in it or not: his arguments will still serve their purpose of convincing the opponent. Kumārila replies that this is inconsistent with the Bauddha's own statement about a means of proof-that both sides must admit it—and with his own definition of 'syllogism.'

Dinnāga's definition of parārthānumāna appears to be identical in meaning with that given by Prasastapāda (*PBh*, p. 231).

Vidyābhūṣana (HIL, p. 282 footnote) draws attention to Identificathis fragment, and cites the Tibetan version as from Pramāna- tion of fragment (i). samuccaya, Chapter III.

SECTION 15.—Fragment J: THE NINE REASONS OR TYPES OF ARGUMENT, VALID AND INVALID.

NVT, p. 197, last line ff. atra Dinnagena: SAPAKŞE SANN ASAN DVEDHĀ PAKŞA-DHARMAḤ PUNAS TRIDHĀ Line 1.

Fragment (8 lines).

Line 2.

PRATYEKAM ASAPAKȘE CA SAD ASAD DVIVIDHATVATAĻ

iti. na ca pakṣa-dharmān hetu-tad-ābhāsān darśayitvā,

Line 3. TATRA YAḤ SAN SAJATĪYE DVEDHĀ CĀSAMS TAD-ATYAYE
Line 4. SA HETUR, VIPARĪTO 'SMĀD VIRUDDHO 'NYAS TV ANIŚCITAḤ.

iti hetu-tad-ābhāsa-viveko daršitaḥ. tasyārthaḥ, yaḥ pakṣa-dharmaḥ sa sapakṣe sann asan dvedhā iti. sa punar asapakṣe sad asad dvividhatvataḥ. pratyekam tridhā bhavatīti. pakṣa-dharmaḥ sapakṣe san vipakṣe sad asad dvividhatvatas tridhā. pakṣa-dharmaḥ sapakṣe dvedha vipakṣe sad asad dvividhatvatas tridheti. atrodāharanam:

Line 5. PRAMEYA-KŖTAKĀNITYA-KŖTA-ŚRĀVAŅA-YATNAJĀḤ
Line 6. ANITYA-YATNAJĀSPARŚĀ NITYATVĀDIṢU TE NAVA

nityatvādişu sādhyeşu prameyatvādayo nava hetu-tad-ābhāsāḥ. • teṣām yathā-samkhyam nityatvādīti. sādhyāny udāharanti—

Line 7. NITYĀNITYA-PRAYATNOTTHA-MADHYAMA-TRIKA-ŚĀSVATĀḤ Line 8. AYATNĀNITYA-NITYĀŚ CA PRAMEYATVĀDI-SĀDHANĀḤ.

Translation. "Dinnāga says:

Line 1.

'A middle term or quality of the subject of inference¹ first takes three forms, according as it does or does not reside in the two possible ways in the sapakṣa.²

¹ pakṣa-dharma is a general term which covers both hetu and hetvā-bhāsa, valid and invalid reasons. Vidyābhūṣaṇa (HIL, p. 299, n. 2) says—I do not know on what authority—that "the hetu-cakra is also called in Sanskrit pakṣa-dharma-cakra." The latter name is preferable, inasmuch as hetu commonly means a valid reason.

This treatment assumes that the hetu or hevābhāsa is a quality of the subject, i.e. is pakṣa-dharma. It therefore ignores the asiddhahetvābhāsa, the pretended reason or middle term (M) which in fact does not reside in the subject (S). See fragment K. Thus it differs from the 'septenary of arguments' (see Note to fragment H), because the septenary takes the asiddha into account.

² The two ways in which M does or does not reside in *sapakṣas*, XP's, are, first, residence or non-residence in *some* (not all); and secondly, esidence or non-residence in *all*. This gives a *threefold* relation of M to XP, viz.:

(i) Residence in all sapaksas. All XP is M.

(ii) Residence in *some sapakṣas* (=non-residence in some). Some XP is M.

(iii) Non-residence in all. No XP is M.

'And in each of these three possible cases the middle Line 2. term does or does not reside in the two ways in the vipaksa.'

"So far he has not shown what middle terms are valid reasons and what are fallacious:

'Among these, a middle term which is present in (either Line 3. of) the two ways in the sapaksa, and is absent in the vipaksa, Line 4. is a valid reason. What differs from this is either contradictory or inconclusive.'

There is similarly a threefold division of possible relations of the middle term to the vipakṣa, X non-P, according as M is resident in all X non-P's, resident in some (non-resident in some), or non-resident
in all (i.e. not resident in any X non-P).

Combining this threefold relation to the *vipakṣa* with the threefold relation to the *sapakṣa* we get the *nine* types of the 'hetu-cakra':

I. All SP is M, all XP is M, all X non-P is M (inconclusive).

II. All SP is M, all XP is M, no X non-P is M (valid).

III. All SP is M, all XP is M, some X non-P is M (inconclusive).

IV. All SP is M, no XP is M, all X non-P is M (contradictory).

V. All SP is M, no XP is M, no X non-P is M (inconclusive).

VI. All SP is M, no XP is M, some X non-P is M (contradictory).

VII. All SP is M, some XP is M, all X non-P is M (inconclusive).

VIII. All SP is M, some XP is M, no X non-P is M (valid).

IX. All SP is M, some XP is M, some X non-P is M (inconclusive).

(These are arranged in the numerical order of the diagram facing p. 298 of Vidyābhūṣaṇa's *History of Indian Logic*, and p. 100 of his *Mediæval Logic*. They are there arranged in a square:

I. II. III. IV. V. VI. VII. VIII. IX.)

Dr. F. W. Thomas informs me that the Tibetan text shows the square

arrangement.

² Either present in all sapakṣas or present in some only. anvayinah sapakṣa-vyāpty-avyāptibhyām dvitvam, as Uddyotakara says. There are thus two valid types, Nos. II and VIII of the list. As we should put it, BARBARA may be of two kinds according as the major premise is or is not simply convertible. (The middle must of course be absent in all vipakṣas, otherwise we should have an instance X non-P M, which would invalidate the vyāpti or 'major premise,' all M is P.)

3 Nos. IV and VI are 'contradictory,' as leading in the valid types

II and VIII to the contradictory conclusion.

4 Nos. I, III, V, VII, IX—the odd numbers, or corners and centre of the square—are classed by Dinnaga as aniścita=samdigdha: as

"In these lines the distinction between the reason or valid middle, and the apparent reason or invalid middle, is shown. The meaning of the first two lines is that a middle term, which is a quality of the minor, may be resident or non-resident in the sapaksa in two ways; and again resident or nonresident in the vipaksa in two ways; and in each case there is a threefold division. Being a quality of the minor, and being resident in the sapaksa, it may be resident in two ways (in some or all), and non-resident in two ways (in some or all), in the vipaksa, which means that there are three ways in which it may be related to the vipaksa (as residing in all, some, or none). And then again, being a quality of the paksa, and being related in two (further) ways to the sapaksa, it may be resident and non-resident in the two ways in the vipaksa that is, related in three ways to the vipaksa. He now gives the illustration:

Lines 5 and 6.

'The nine middle terms used to prove eternality and the other majors are: knowable, product, non-eternal; product, audible, effect of volition; non-eternal, effect of volition, intangible.'

"Knowable, etc., are the nine reasons and apparent reasons used to prove eternality and the other majors. Eternality, etc. belong to these in the order as enumerated. The following are the examples of the majors:

Lines 7 and 8.

'The majors which have knowable and so on for their middle terms are: eternal, non-eternal, effect of volition;

leading to a doubtful conclusion. The centre, No. V, is the asādhāraṇa of other logicians—the too restricted reason: which Praśastapāda classes as anadhyavasita—i.e. leading to no conclusion at all, not even to a doubtful one. The first type, No. I, is its opposite, the too general reason

¹ Vācaspati's explanation of the way in which the nine types is arrived at is, I think, that given in footnotes 2 on p. 30 and 1 on p. 31, above; but instead of giving the second two sets of three separately he indicates them by the rather confusing phrase 'sapakṣe dvedhā.' And the first set of three is indicated through the ambiguous sapakse san—which must be taken to mean 'resident in all the sapakṣas.' The punctuation of the text is wrong, and I have altered it.

in the middle set of three,1 eternal; and non-volitional, non-eternal, eternal."

Vidyābhūṣaṇa (HIL, pp. 283-285 footnotes) cites the Identifica-Tibetan version of this passage as from Chapter III of the tion. Pramāṇa-samuccaya.

Uddyotakara, in commenting on NS, I, i, 35, returns to the Context. subject of the trilakṣaṇa-hetu (already dealt with in his comment on I, i, 5). He repeats his argument against the trairū-pya² (see fragment H) and against the 'septenary' of types of argument (see Note to fragment H); and then he quotes the third line of the present fragment: tatra yaḥ san sajātīye, etc. (NV, p. 132, l. 12). He argues that this, as a definition of hetu,

• fails to mention the requirement of pakṣa-dharmatā as it stands. The Bauddha is then represented as replying that this deficiency is supplied in the next fragment, q.v.

¹ The madhyama-trika is the middle line of the square, Nos. IV, V, and VI. Putting the middle terms of lines 5 and 6 together with the majors of lines 7 and 8 we get:

I. Sound is eternal because knowable.

II. Sound is non-eternal because a product.

III. Sound is volitional because non-eternal.

IV. Sound is eternal because a product.

V. Sound is eternal because audible.

VI. Sound is eternal because volitional.

VII. Sound is non-volitional because non-eternal.

VIII. Sound is non-eternal because volitional.

IX. Sound is eternal because intangible.

These are exactly the examples given in the *Hetu-cakra-damaru* (i.e. the *Nyāya-praveśa*): with this exception, that Vidyābhūṣaṇa gives non-eternal (instead of eternal) as the major of No. V.

² The discussion arises out of his citation and criticism of yet another Bauddha definition of the hetu, viz. vipakṣād višeṣaḥ (NV, p. 128, l. 9 ff.). There is nothing to show the source of this citation except the fact that at p. 131, l. 10, Uddyotakara considers it from the standpoint of the Sautrāntika view that all things are non-eternal (yadā Sautrāntika-pakṣam āśritya lakṣaṇam vicāryate, etc.).

Section 16.—Fragment K: All Middle Terms are 'Pakṣa-dkarma.'

NVT, p. 198, 1. 14 uktam Dinnāgena—

Fragment (one line).

SĀDHYA-DHARMO YATO HETUS TAD-ĀBHĀSAŚ CA BHŪYASĀ iti.

That is: Dinnaga says:

Translation of fragment.

"Because the valid reason and the apparent reason are, in general, qualities of the Subject of the inference . . ."

Identifica-

Vidyābhūṣaṇa does not notice this fragment. The sense of it is incomplete, and the yataḥ would appear to point to a correlative tataḥ in a following line. Dinnāga may perhaps have said: "It is because both valid and spurious reasons are in general resident in S that this wheel of reasons does not concern itself with the relation of M to S." For, as Vidyābhūṣaṇa points out (HIL, p. 299), "in this work" (i.e. the Hetu-cakra-ḍamaru) "Dinnāga has analysed all nine possible relations between the middle and the major terms," ignoring the relation between the middle and the minor as such. It seems probable that this may be a ninth line continuous with the eight lines of the preceding fragment. It is cited immediately in the context.

Context.

See preceding fragment. The Bauddha, in reply to criticisms, is represented by Uddyotakara as saying that the present fragment implies that a valid reason must be pakṣa-dharma, resident in SP.

NV, p. 132, l. 14. yadi tāvad etal lakṣaṇam yathā-śrutí bhavati, pakṣe¹ vidyata iti kenaital labhyate?—iti.² nanu coktam hetuh tad-ābhāso vā prāyah pakṣa-dharma eva bhavati.

¹ The text reads *vipakṣe vidyate*, which cannot possibly be right. Dr. Jhā translates as if *pakṣe vidyate*: and this must be the true reading.

² The iti means that he is explaining his last sentence etāvatā kila lakṣaṇena tri-lakṣaṇo hetur labhyata iti yathā-śruti na labhyate. i.e., he is explaining the statement that the definition does not, as it stands, cover the three characters of the valid reason—because it omits the first character, pakṣa-dharmatā.

That is: if that definition (line 3 of preceding fragment) is taken as it stands, by what phrase does it say that the middle term resides in the paksa, SP? (That is, it does not say so.) It may be suggested that it is also said, 'a reason, valid or invalid, is in general resident in SP.' (This paraphrases the line cited by Vācaspati.)

Uddyotakara says that the statement no doubt implies that M resides in SP; but it does not imply that M resides in all cases of SP: satyam, arthat pakṣa-dharmo gamyate: na tu vyāpake niyato labhyate1 (NV, p. 132, l. 20). It asserts mere concomitance, which may be either residence in all or in some (of S): sambhava-mātram labhyate, tac ca dvedhā, vyāpakam avyāpakam ca. The Bauddha falls back on his usual device of reading a restriction (avadhārana) into the statement: paksa-dharma means paksa-dharma and nothing else, and the M which does not reside in all S cannot be called pakṣa-dharma and nothing else, because it resides only in part of S (na tv ayam pakṣa-dharma eva, ekadeśa-vṛttitvāt).2 That which resides only in part of S cannot be called paksasya dharma eva. Uddyotakara replies that the restriction would not have the force of excluding a property resident only in some S (katham avyāpakam nivartayişyati?). It has a different force in Dinnāga's statement (anyārtham avadhāranam kalpayanti bhavantah): i.e., the force of 'distributing' the subject of the statement, viz. 'reasons and apparent reasons' (hetu-

¹ Jhā transl., vol. i, p. 374, renders "there is nothing to imply that every Probans must subsist in the Subject"—i.e. he understands the criticism to be that the statement does not imply that all M is P. But the context seems to me to make it plain that Uddyotakara means 'the statement does not imply that all SP is M.' His objection is that it would admit arguments with an illicit process of the minor term. na vyāpake niyataḥ, literally, means that the pakṣa-dharma-hetu is not confined to the case of a pakṣa-dharma which is vyāpaka of (belongs to all of) the pakṣa, S. (The interpretation of the rest of the passage which I give here differs accordingly from Dr. Jhā's rendering on p. 374.)

² To say that nothing but a property of S is M means that every M is a property of S: but it does not mean that all S is M, as the *Bauddha* here supposes.

tad-ābhāsa-niyama-jñāpanārtham): so that the statement would mean that "all reasons and apparent reasons are qualities of the subject of inference." 1

SECTION 17.—Fragment L: DINNĀGA'S CRITICISM OF THE DEFINITION OF 'Hetu,' I.E. OF THE SECOND MEMBER OF THE SYLLOGISM.

(NS, I, i, 34. udāharaṇā-sādharmyāt sādhya-sādhanam hetuh.)

UDĀHARAŅA-SĀDHARMYĀT KIM ANYAT SĀDHYA-SĀDHANAM ? SĀDHANAM YADI SĀDHARMYAM, NA VĀKYĀMŚAḤ, NA PAÑCAMĪ.

. . . SĀDHANATVĀD ASAMBHAVAĻ

. . . PRAKRTE TV ANYA-SAMBHAVAH

SVALAKṢAŅENA BĀDHĀ CEN, NA, VIKALPĀDI SAMBHAVĀT. TASMĀT SASTHY ASTU, TATRĀPI VIŚESAŅAM ANARTHAKAM.

Actual citation seems to be confined to these four whole lines and two half-lines. The first is cited at NV, p. 123, l. 8, the rest at NVT, pp. 189, l. 16–190, l. 2. The latter passage, which I give in extenso below, gives what is either a paraphrase or an exposition of Dinnāga's criticism, and it is not easy to disentangle actual citations in it.

The fragment was not noticed by Vidyābhūṣaṇa, although Dr. Jhā had drawn attention to it in a footnote to vol. i, p. 348 of his translation of the Nyāya-bhāṣya and Vārttika: "It is interesting to note that the Tātparya actually quotes fifteen² lines from the works of Dinnāga embodying the objection here taken up by the Vārttika" (i.e. the objection udāharana-sādharmyāc ca kim anyat sādhya-sādhanam ity eke—NV, p. 123, l. 8). "It is not possible, however, to translate this passage, as the text appears to be defective." The lines cited are attributed to Dinnāga by name in NVT, p. 190, l. 2. They

¹ The remainder of the passage merely reiterates the arguments against the *trairūpya* already urged in the comment on I, i, 5.

² As just stated, I cannot find more than the fragment given above: but Vācaspati's paraphrase or exposition seems to imply a passage of eight or ten lines.

are probably to be found near the beginning of Chapter IV of the *Pramāna-samuccaya—i.e.*, the chapter of that work which, according to Vidyābhūṣaṇa (*HIL*, pp. 276 and 286), treats of Reason and Example.

Uddyotakara's reply to Dinnāga's criticism is given in a The Vārttika's rather lengthy and difficult section (NV, pp. 123, l. 8-125, l. 4) account of the comment on NS, I, i, 34, which I render as follows:

"Some say that 'the means of proving the conclusion is not anything distinct from the likeness to the example,' and so the definition should be svata udāharana-sādharmyam hetuh—the reason (M) is the likeness of the thing itself (S) to the example (XP). And if you say that the words sādhya-sādhanam, instrument of proving the conclusion, are inserted as a qualification of udāharana-sādharmyam, then the employment of the fifth or ablative case-inflection (in udāharana-sādharmyāt) serves no purpose. We do not say nīlād utpalam, but nīlam utpalam, blue lotus (blue qualifies lotus, and has the same case-inflection therefore). Others give a different account of the uselessness of the employment of the ablative, saying that the ablative is used in the case of two different thingsas 'he comes from the village'; but 'the instrument of proof' is not something separate from the 'likeness to the example'; and therefore we cannot say 'the means of proof is from likeness to the example.' And if the sūtra-kāra means that 'likeness to the example, qualified by being the means of proving what is to be proved,' is the hetu, or second 'member' of the syllogism or pañcāvayava-vākya, this amounts to saying that the hetu, as the second member of the syllogism, is (not a statement, abhidhāna, but) a thing stated

¹ It is not clear who these 'others' are, nor does their view appear to differ materially from the view just stated; which, according to Vācaspati, is what Dinnāga meant by his 'na pancamī'—tad idam uktam Bhadantena. anye to etad anyathā vyācakṣate (NVT, p. 190, 1. 5).

² The qualification is necessary, as Uddyotakara points out below, because mere likeness to the example might be an irrelevant likeness, in which case, of course, it would not be the hetu. See NV, p. 123, last line to p. 124, sādharmyasya vyabhicāry-avyabhichāritvād viśeṣana-yogah.

(abhidheya).¹ And this would be inconsistent with the definition which has been given of the first member of the syllogism, the Proposition, which is defined as the statement of what is to be proved (sādhya-nirdeśah pratijñā, NS, I, i, 33). A whole or aggregate made up of statements and things does not come within the range of possible experiences (na cābhi-dhānābhidheyātmakaḥ samudāyo dṛṣṭaḥ). Therefore both of these—the Proposition, as defined by the Nyāya-sūtra, and the Reason, as defined by the Nyāya-sutra on the present interpretation—cannot be 'members' of a single whole (i.e. they cannot both be members of the pañcāvayava-vākya).

"But this fault is not really chargeable against the sūtra (for the sutra-kūra really means, as interpreted by Vātsyāyana, that the hetu is the statement of the likeness to the example as probative of the probandum); and so Vātsyāyana makes no further answer to objections, because the only possible objection has been met by just this interpretation (na parī-

hārāntaram prayojayati, tenaivāpāk tatvāt).

"It is said that a qualification is inserted (viz. the phrase $s\bar{a}dhya-s\bar{a}dhanam$) because the 'likeness' might be either conclusive or inconclusive ($s\bar{a}dharmyasya$ vyabhicāry-avya-bhicāritvād višesana-yogah). The Bauddha objects that this is impossible on the ground that the statement of this (i.e. of $s\bar{a}dharmya$) does not admit of having this qualification (viz. probativeness) predicated of it (you could call the likeness to XP 'proof' that S is P; but you cannot call the statement of such likeness 'proof'). The nature of the subject is determined by the predicate (yat tatprakāravat, tad višesyate); and the predicate or prakāra in this case, viz. 'probativeness,' belongs to the likeness, and not to the statement of the likeness ($s\bar{a}dharmye$ caitad asti, na ca vacasīti).

¹ This is a fair criticism of the expressions used in the sūtras, which do as a matter of fact fail to make consistently explicit the distinction between inference and the verbal expression of inference—a distinction which Vaiśeṣika-Bauddha logic underlined through separate treatment of svārthānumāna and parārthānumāna.

"The Naiyāyika's reply to this is: We do not understand your position that 'the statement cannot have the predicate' (vacasah prakārakatvam¹ na bhavatīti na buddhyāmahe). A word takes a qualification in precisely the same way in which a thing does (yathaivārthah prakāravān, tathā vacanam apīti).2 How does a thing get a predicate? From being either of two possibilities -i.e. because it is either of two-either eternal or non-eternal, either corporeal or incorporeal. Well, the word or statement also is either of two possibilities, and so the case is parallel: for the thing is named by the word—'eternal,' 'non-eternal'; 'corporeal,' 'incorporeal.' And we find that distinctions are in fact made between words as such. For instance, we • are asked, 'What did he say?' and we answer, 'He said "cow" ' (gaur ity āha). The iti, or the inverted commas, mark it as a word: and the word, as such, is distinguished from all other words. Moreover, the critic himself has used many sentences which make distinctions between different statements as such (svayam vacana-višesakani bahūni vākyāni prayuktāni). For instance, he has defined Discussion (vāda) as 'statement with a view to proving and disproving one's own and the other party's position' (see fragment P). Here the critic, who has such a sharp sight for defects alleged in

¹ The text has kārakatvam. Dr. Jhā's emendation prakārakatvam

seems highly probable.

² What Uddyotakara seems to me to be saying here is that there is necessarily parallelism between language and facts. If a fact is a proof, then a statement of the fact is a probative statement. And against Dinnāga's denial of this latter corollary he has a most effective retort to hand in the former's definition of discussion as a probative statement! But he seems to prefer to deal with the matter as one of general principle rather than of particular application: so that he throws even this retort into the less obvious form of saying that in this definition Dinnaga is attaching a predicate to a statement as such. Now to attach a predicate is to distinguish. And the fact is that we do distinguish one word from another, one statement from another. If then we ask further how one word is distinguished from another, we shall find the answer to be that distinctions between words are in virtue of, and exactly parallel to, the distinctions between the things or facts of which the words are the names. So that the name of the word is the name of the thing put within inverted commas.

others, has lost repute thereby" (read $s\bar{u}ksmeksikay\bar{a}$ for $s\bar{u}ksmoksikay\bar{a}$ of the text. Cf. NVT, p. 225, l. 2).

"As for the statement that the use of the ablative, udāharanasādharmyāt-from likeness to the example-is meaningless because we find the ablative used of a thing which is different from that which is asserted to be derived 'from' it (arthantare dṛṣtatvāt), in this he goes against his own school's teachings. For you Bauddhas do not believe that such wholes as 'army,' 'forest,' are anything different from their component parts-and yet the ablative is used in such sentences as 'this tree has been brought from the forest,' 'the horse comes from the army.' And (it may be added that) the ablative is found employed, in another branch of learning (the arthaśāstra). in application to things which are not different from the thing which is asserted to be derived 'from' them: for instance. it is said that 'the Six Virtues of a government are derived from making peace and waging war' (although making peace and waging war are enumerated among the Six Virtues).1

"Moreover, the definition of the valid reason as 'what differentiates from non-P' is (intended by its Bauddha author to

¹ Presumably the use of the ablative here is to be defended on the ground that these two are basic, the other four derivative. It does not really affect the soundness of the principle laid down for the employment of the ablative. Nor does Uddyotakara seem to question that principle in general. He only suggests that it admits of qualification

in a particular application.

² hetur vipakṣād viśeṣaḥ. Who was the particular Bauddha who gave this definition? Uddyotakara need not be taken to imply that it was Dinnāga himself, though that is a natural supposition. He criticises this definition at length in his comment on the following sūtra, NS, I, i, 35 (NV, p. 128, l. 9 ff.). Vācaspati Miśra says nothing as to its authorship in his comment on either passage: but he may have meant us to take the attribution to Dinnāga for granted, in view of the context. At NV, p. 129, l. 14, Uddyotakara refers to a commentary—Vrtti—which he tells us qualifies the definition by adding the phrase yo dharmah pakṣasya. It is possible, even probable, that the vrtti here referred to is Dinnāga's own vrtti on his Pramāna-samuccaya, and that he is here supplementing his own definition as given in the Pramāṇa-samuccaya.

apply even in the case) of a hetu where a vipak;a, or case of non-P, is not admitted to exist (as, for instance, in the argument 'sound is non-eternal, because it is a product.' According to the Bauddha tenet there is nothing eternal. Therefore the reason, 'being a product,' here differentiates the Subject, 'sound as non-eternal,' from a non-P which does not exist). How then can you say that the ablative refers to arthāntara, a separate or different thing? (What does not exist cannot be called a separate thing, arthāntara.)

"As to the suggestion that the genitive case udāharaṇa-sādharmyasya would be more correct than the ablative udāharaṇa-sādharmyāt, this too is wrong: for the use of a kāraka-inflection (such as the ablative is—the genitive is not reckoned as a kāraka) depends on what the speaker means to say. When the likeness is intended to be referred to as the thing that is stated ('the Reason is the statement of the probativeness of the likeness to the example'), the genitive case would be right. But when the likeness is intended to be spoken of as the cause of the statement, then the casual ablative is correct. You may ask: How is the likeness to the example the cause of the statement of the probativeness? The answer is that when such likeness is present the statement is made ('presence in presence,' sati bhāvah). That is, it is the cause because it is after appre-

Uddyotakara frequently uses the argumentum ad hominem derived from this illustration which the Bauddha inconsistently gives as an illustration

of a valid argument.

It is to this present retort against the Bauddha that Uddyotakara seems to be referring in the comment on the next sūtra: tad etal lakṣaṇam svasiddhāntenāsaṅngatatvād alakṣaṇam iti tad api hetu-vārttikaṅn kurvānenoktam (NV, p. 132, l. 18. Dr. Jhā is clearly mistaken in regarding this, ad loc., as a reference to a Vārttika by some Bauddha writer. Uddyotakara's comment on NS, I, i, 34, which gives the definition of hetu, would probably be called the hetu-vārttika.)

¹ This is Vācaspati Miśra's interpretation. Uddyotakara's words are: anabhyupagatārthāntara-viśeṣasya ca hetur vipakṣād viśeṣa iti (NV, p. 124, l. 16). Vācaspati comments: anabhyupagateti. anabhyupagato arthāntaram vipakṣo yasya hetor, anityatve sādhye kṛtakatvādeḥ, sa tathoktaḥ (NVT, p. 190, l. 24).

hension of this likeness that the various factors-intention to say something, effort of will, expulsion of breath, impact of the breath on the palate and other places—become causes of the sound. And so, mediately, the likeness is the cause: and thus the ablative is the better usage."

The account of the contro-

Tāt parya.

(b)

(c)

(d)

(f)

The passage in which Vācaspati Miśra explains Dinnāga's versy in the criticism is as follows:

NVT, p. 189, l. 16-p. 190, l. 3. etat kila hetu-lakṣanam bhadanto dūsayām babhūva

NA PAÑCAMÏ-

SĀDHANAM YADI SĀDHARMYAM, NA VĀKYĀMŚAḤ— (a) na hy arthah pañcāvayava-vākyasyāvayavaḥ-

> yadi sādhana-sādharmyayor atyantābhedo, yadi vā sāmānyaviśesa-bhāvena kathamcid bheda, ubhayathā na pañcamī, sādhana-sāmānādhikaranyena prathamā-prasangāt, atyantābhede caikatara-pada-prayogāt. vākyam cet, tatah pañcamy upapadyate. sādhanam hi vākyarūpam sādharmyād arthād utthitam, yatah tad viśesyam syāt. na hi vākyam evārthad utthitam, apitu vivaksādyapīti.—na višesyam. kutah? SĀDHANATVĀD artha - samutthānām jñāna - vivakṣādīnām ASAMBHAVAH. aprasango 'sādhanatvād iti. na tatrāpi dvedhā doṣāt sākṣāt sādhanam pāramparyena vā. yadi pāramparyena, vakt: jñānam tarhi sāksāt sādharmya-samuttham, pāramparyena ca śrotuh sādhya-vijñāna-sādhanam hetuh syāt. atha sākṣāt sādhanam, tarhi śroty-jñānam pāramparyena sādharmya-samuttham sāksāt sādhanam hetuh syāt. Prakrte TV Anya-sam-

sādharmya-samutthatvāt. SVALAKSANENA BĀDHĀ CEN, NA, VIKALPĀDI-SAMBHAVĀT (e)

> TASMĀT SASTHY ASTU TATRĀPI VIŚESAŅAM ANARTHAKAM sādharmyasya hetur ity etāvan-mātrain vaktavyam iti. tad etad Dinnāga-dūsanam upanyasyati

> nādi-vyavacchedah, tathāpy ANYA-SAMBHAVAḤ--upanayasyāpi

yadi tu pañcāvayava-vākyasya prakṛtatvāj jñā-

UDĀHARANA-SĀDHARMYĀCCeti.

[See also NVT, p. 190, ll. 5, 19, and 26.]

Apparent citations are marked by capitals. Those marked (a) and (b), taken together, form one complete line. Those marked (c) and (d) appear to be the second halves of two lines. Those marked (e) and (f) are two complete lines. The fragment thus comprises three whole lines and two half lines. But one more complete line appears to be contained in the citation made by Uddyotakara and referred to in the last clause of the present passage: for, omitting the ca, we get—

UDĀHARAŅA-SĀDHARMYĀT KIM ANYAT SĀDHYA-SĀDHANAM. (9)

The fragment, supplemented by this, which appears to be its first line, amounts to four whole lines and two halves. I cannot disentangle any other metrical fragments from the passage, though it seems probable that others may be concealed in it.

This passage may be translated thus:

"The Bauddha criticised this definition. He says: 'If Fragments the means of proof is the likeness, then (i) it is not a member (a) and (b). of the syllogism, and (ii) the ablative—udāharana-sādharmyāt —could not be used. It is not a member of the syllogism, because a thing cannot be a member of a whole composed of five statements. And the ablative is out of place, because, whether you mean to assert absolute identity of means of proof with likeness, or to assert that means of proof is a specific case of the generic notion of likeness (so that there is in some sense difference between them), the ablative would be out of place either way. For in the latter case both words refer to the same thing (sāmānādhikaranya), and so the first or nominative case-inflection should be used; and in the former case you would use one or other of the words, but not both of them (you could call the hetu udāharana-sadharmya, or you could call it sādhya-sādhana: but you would not call it both at once).

"It might be said that if the *hetu* is understood as a statement, the ablative then becomes possible. For the means of proof, understood as a proposition, is derived from a fact, viz. the likeness between the Subject of inference and the

Example: so that it can be the subject of this qualification

(i.e. sādhana, in the sense of a proposition, can be qualified as 'derived from the likeness'). Of course it is not only the statement, but also the intention to say something and so on. that is derived from the likeness. And, taken in this way, sādhana cannot be the subject of the qualification udāharana-Fragment (c). sādharmyāt. Why? It is impossible because the sādhana is the sādhana, i.e. the means of proving what is to be proved: while this would not be true of what arises from the fact, viz. the knowledge of the fact, the intention to assert it, and so on, these are not the means of proving what is to be proved (i.e. the fact itself is the sādhana; what can be characterised as 'arising from the fact' is, for that very reason, not the sādhana). Nor can you take sādhana in a double sense here, as directly or immediately the means of proof, on the one hand: and as indirectly or mediately means of proof, on the other hand: for either way involves difficulties. Taking the Reason to be what is indirectly the means of proving the conclusion, then it is the speaker's knowledge-directly derived from the likeness—that is indirectly the means of establishing knowledge of the probandum in the mind of the hearer: and it is therefore the speaker's knowledge which should be the 'reason' for the hearer's conclusion (which is patently absurd). And, taking the Reason to be what is directly the means of proving the conclusion, then the hearer's knowledge-indirectly derived from the likeness-is directly the means of proving the conclusion for him, and it is therefore the hearer's knowledge that is the Reason (which will not consist with your definition, according to which the Reason is derived from the likeness: but the hearer's knowledge is not derived from the likeness, but from the speaker's statement). (The Naiyāyika is apparently supposed to retort at this

point that he is not talking about 'knowledge,' whether of the speaker or of the hearer. He is talking about 'Reason'

¹ Or, 'the sādhana does not arise (sambhava) from the likeness, just because it is the sādhana.'

in the context of the syllogism or 'five-membered statement'; and, as part of the five-membered statement, the 'Reason' must be taken to be itself neither more nor less than a statement. To this Dinnaga replies:) Taking the 'Reason' in the Fragment (d). strict sense determined by the context, i.e. as a statement, so as to exclude the knowledge of speaker and hearer and so forth, your definition is still open to the objection that other things as well are 'derived from the likeness': for the Application, or fourth member of your syllogism, is also 'derived from the likeness of the Subject to the example' (seeing that this likeness is the very thing which is stated in the fourth member—tathā cāyam)."

 (Vācaspati now cites two complete lines, which seem to mean:)

"If it be said that the view that the means of proof is the Fragment (e). thing itself, is contradicted by the Bauddha theory of the thing as being the ding-an-sich or unique particular, this is not so, because there arise 'fictions of the understanding' (which somehow correspond to the ding-an-sich: and these fictions comprise the 'likeness' which serves as the probans in inference).

"The Naiyāyika might reply to certain of the above criti-Fragment (f). cisms by saying that the possessive case might be substituted for the ablative (udāharaṇa-sādharmyasya in place of udāharaṇa-sādharmyāt). The reply to this is that in that case also the qualification (sādhya-sādhanam) has no meaning "(because, as Vācaspati says, it is put as qualification of the statement of likeness—NVT, p. 190, l. 19. So that the objection remains—you cannot qualify the statement of the likeness as 'probative,' any more than you can qualify the statement arising from the likeness as 'probative').

(Vācaspati concludes:) "It is this criticism made by Dinnāga that the Vārttika refers to in the passage beginning UDĀHARAŅA-SĀDHARMYĀC CA."

The line cited by Uddyotakara at the opening of the passage on which Vācaspati is commenting probably forms the first Fragment (g). line of the passage in Dinnāga—udāharaṇa-sādharmyāt kim anyat sādhya-sādhanam? It may be interpreted: "What else is the means of proving the probandum than the likeness to the example itself?" That is: the Naiyāyika says 'the Reason is the proof of the prabandum from likeness to the example.' The ablative implies that the means of proof is other than the likeness. But the likeness is the means of proof.

Section 18.—Fragment M: Definition of the 'Probans,' 'Hetu' (as a term in the inference: not as a 'member' of the 'pañcāvayava-vākya').

Fragment (incomplete line).

GRĀHYA-DHARMAS TAD-AMSENA VYĀPTO HETUḤ . . .

NV, p. 134, l. 13. etena grāhya-dharmas tad-aṁśena vyāpto¹ hetur iti pratyuktam. anenāvyāpakādir labhyata ity² uktottaram etad apīti.

NVT, p. 199, l. 9. Dinnāgasyaiva pradeśāntara-hetu-lakṣa-nam. grāhya-dharmaḥ pakṣa-dharmaḥ tad-amśena tasyaiva pakṣasyāmśena sādhya-dharma-sāmānyena vyāpto hetur iti. tad eva tad-dhetu-lakṣanam upanyasyā 'smin pūrvoktam doṣam atidiśati eteneti. atideśam eva sphutayati avyāpakādir iti. yathā-śruta-lakṣane pakṣāvyāpakasya hetutvam tad-amśetivyāptam ity³ asya vivaranālocanena sapakṣa-sattvam vipakṣāc ca vyāvṛttir ity arthaḥ. tathā ca pūrvokta-doṣa-prasanga ity arthah.

That is: Uddyotakara says:

"By this the definition of the reason as 'a quality of the subject (S) which is pervaded (universally accompanied) by

¹ The text has the meaningless $vy\bar{a}ptyor$, but the editor notes that NVT has $vy\bar{a}pto$, which is certainly the right reading.

² The text reads *iti* (without *saindhi*). Printed texts are not always consistent in their application of *saindhi*. I think the two clauses should run together, and I have therefore inserted the *saindhi*.

³ Read tad-amsena vyāpta ity in place of the textual tad-amseti-vyāptam ity, which seems to be meaningless.

an aspect (P) of the subject (S)', is set aside. That is, this definition also has been answered: the answer being that it would apply to middle terms which do not reside in the whole of the Subject, and so on."

Vācaspati comments on this:

"A definition of the reason given by Dinnaga himself in another place. The word grāhya-dharma in this definition means paksa-dharma, 'a quality of the paksa or Subject of inference. Tad-améena: this means tasya, i.e. pakṣasya, amsena: that is, sādhya-dharma-sāmānyena—the reason is pervaded by the general nature of the quality which is to be proved (by P, as a universal). He cites the definition, and extends the application of the previous criticism to it. in the words 'By this,' etc. He explains how that criticism applies to this definition in the words 'it would apply to middle terms which do not reside in the whole of the subject.' Taking the definition as it stands, a middle which did not reside in the whole of S would be a reason (i.e. a valid middle term). Reference to the explanation ('Vivarana,' which may mean Dinnāga's own Vrtti on the Pramāna-samuccaya) will show that the words tad-amsena vyāptah mean residence in the sapaksa and absence from the vipaksa: so that the criticisms previously brought against Dinnaga's conception of the trairupya and of tri-laksana-hetu (see fragments H and J and K above) are also applicable to this definition."

Vidyābhūṣaṇa does not notice this fragment, and it is Identificadifficult to locate it. But for the explicit statement of Vācaspati that it comes from 'another place,' it would have been
natural to connect it with fragments J and K, and refer it to
Chapter III of the Pramāṇa-samuccaya. In view of Vācaspati's statement, however, it has to be assigned either to
another work altogether (which is improbable, as Vācaspati's
other citations all seem to come from the Pramāṇa-samuccaya);
or else either to Chapter II, which discusses inference for oneself, or to Chapter IV, in connection with the discussion of

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hetu as a member of the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}vayava-v\bar{a}kya$. The attribution to Chapter II appears most probable.

The fragment is important because in it (and in it alone) the doctrine of $vy\bar{a}pti$ —with which Dinnāga's name is always connected—is explicitly stated: and stated in language parallel to that used by Kumārila. The use of $am\acute{s}a$ seems to be identical with Kumārila's use of $ekade\acute{s}a$ when he speaks of the pakṣa (S) as the $ekade\acute{s}in$ or $ekade\acute{s}avat$, which has as its two $ekade\acute{s}as$ the gamaka or hetu (M) on the one hand, and the gamya or $s\bar{a}dhya$ (P) on the other hand. The phraseology in which Vācaspati explicates it is reminiscent rather of Praśastapāda: cf. what is said of the $nidar\acute{s}ana$ (= $ud\bar{a}haran\acute{a}$, third member of the 'syllogism') in $Pra\acute{s}astap\bar{a}da$ - $bh\bar{a}$ ṣya, • p. 251, anena $s\bar{a}dhya$ - $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nyena$ $s\bar{a}dhana$ - $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}nyasy\bar{a}$ 'nuga-ma- $m\bar{a}tram$ ucyate.

The vyāpti doctrine is ultimately inconsistent with the view of inference as an affair of examples, embodied in the trairūpya doctrine. But both doctrines played a prominent part in Dinnāga's logic. He is said to have originated the former doctrine: but probably he inherited the trairūpya doctrine from predecessors; and Sugiura states that he himself in the Nyāya-dvāra ascribes it to 'Socmock,' i.e. to Akṣa-pāda,¹ the reputed author of the Nyāya Sūtra. But it does not figure in the Nyāya Sūtra, though it seems to be implicit in one sūtra of the fifth chapter (NS, V, i, 34), and (more clearly) in Vātsyāyana's bhāṣya thereon.

Section 19.—Fragment N: 'Comparison' (*Upamāna*) is only the Perception of Likeness, or of an Object as like, and is therefore not a Separate Source of Knowledge ('*Pramāṇa*').

NV, p. 60, l. 16. pratyakṣāgamābhyām nopamānam bhidyate. katham iti? yadā tāv ubhau go-gavayau pratyakṣeṇa

¹ For the identification of 'Socmock' of the Chinese tradition with Aksapāda or Gautama, see Sugiura, Buddhist Logic as preserved in China and Japan (Philadelphia, 1900, p. 21, footnote 3).

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paśyati, tadā hy ayam "anena sarūpa" iti pratyakṣataḥ pratipīdyate. yadāpi śṛṇoti "yathā gaur evam gavaya" iti, tadāsya śṛṇvata eva buddhir upajāyate "kecid godharmā gavaye 'nvayina upalabhyante, kecid vyatirekina" iti—anyathā hi yathā tathety eva na syāt—bhūyas tu sārūpyam gavā gavayasyety (text: gavayasya iti) evam pratipādyate. Tasmān nopamānam pratyakṣāgamābhyām bhidyata iti. gavā gavaya-sādṛśyam pratipādyate, gavaya-sattām veti. aho pramānābhijnātā Bhadantasya. gavā gavaya-sārūpya-pratipattes tu sanjīnā-sanjīni-sambandham pratipādyata iti sūtrārthaḥ. tasmād aparijnāya sūtrārtham yatkincid ucyate.

NVT, p. 135, l. 2. tad īdṛśam upamāna-phalam avidvān vādṛśya-jñānam sādṛśya-viśiṣṭa-jñānam vopamāna-phalam iti bhrānto Bhadanto Dinnāga ākṣipati: pratyakṣeti.

Ibid., l. 14. tasmān na sādṛṣya-pratīti-phalam upamānam Fragment? pratyakṣād vakyād va vyatiricyata iti sūktam. Bhadanta-bhrāntim udghāṭayati: gaveti.

That is, Uddyotakara says:

"'Comparison is not distinct from perception and testimony.' How so? Because when a person sees both the cow and the gayal, in that case it is by perception that he apprehends that this is like that: and when he is told that the gayal is like the cow, in that case it is just on the hearing of this that the knowledge arises in his mind that some of the qualities of the cow are found in the gayal and others are not: as otherwise the word 'like' would not have been used by the speaker: and he apprehends a preponderant sameness of the qualities of the gayal with those of the cow. For this reason 'comparison is not distinct from perception and testimony.' On this account of the matter, what the person apprehends is (in the latter case) the resemblance of the cow to the gaval, or (in the former case) the existence of the gaval (as qualified by resemblance to the cow). What understanding the Bauddha shows of the nature of the pramana! (that is, he has altogether misunderstood the sense in which upamana is asserted to be a pramāna). The sūtra really means that,

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as a result of apprehending the resemblance of the gayal to the cow, the person realises the relation of the name 'gayal' to this particular object. Therefore, what is urged is irrelevant, and arises from ignorance of what the $s\bar{u}$ 'ra means."

Vācaspati's comment means:

"The Bauddha—that is, Dinnāga—raises the objection, comparison is not distinct from perception and testimony, because he did not understand that the resultant cognition produced by upamāna (considered as a separate pramāna) is such as we have explained it to be; and because he mistakenly thought that the knowledge of the likeness, or of an object qualified by the likeness, is the resultant cognition produced by upamāna (whereas in fact these constitute the means of a further cognition)."

And again:

"Therefore (the Bauddha concludes) it is not well said that comparison is separate from perception or testimony.' Uddyotakara explains the Bauddha's mistake in the words as a result of apprehending the likeness of the gayal to the cow,'" etc.

Vidyābhūṣaṇa, HIL, p. 287, n. 2, cites as from Chapter IV of the Pramāna-samuccaya a line in connection with Dinnāga's rejection of upamāna as a separate source of knowledge. Uddyotakara and Vācaspati appear to cite Dinnāga in different versions. Possibly Vācaspati's nopamānam pratyakṣād vakyād vā vyatiricyate is actual citation, of which Uddyotakara's pratyṣāgamābhyām nopamānam bhidyate is a paraphrase.

It seems surprising that Dinnāga should have interpreted the sūtra (NS, I, i, 6) in disregard of Vātsyāyana's interpretation of it, as he appears to have done. Of course the interpretation of the sūtra, taken in itself, is doubtful: and a later passage (NS, II, i, 44-48) can perhaps just as well be cited to support Dinnāga's as to support Vātsyāyana's interpretation of I, i, 6. The orthodox Naiyāyika account of upamāna does in fact read like an afterthought, and it is difficult to believe that it represents the original teaching of the sūtra. I am inclined to think that the acceptance of upamāna as a separate

Identification.

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pramāṇa is connected with the acceptance of the upanaya as a fourth member of syllogism. NS, II, i, 48 appeals to the linguistic usage of yathā... tathā as evidence that upāmana is a separate pramāṇa; and this suggests the tathā cāyam which is the formula of the upanaya. Moreover, the phrase-ology of that sūtra—tathety upasamhārāt—seems to invite reference to the sūtra (NS, I, i, 38) which defines upanaya—udāharaṇāpekṣas tathety upasamhāro na tatheti vā sādhyasyo-panayaḥ. And finally Vātsyāyana himself, in a passage which may embody the older doctrine, definitely identifies the upanaya with upamāna (NBh, p. 44, l. 13, upamānam upanayaḥ tathety upasamharāt). Therefore what Dinnāga criticises may really have been the doctrine of the sūtrakāra, which the school later found it convenient to interpret in a different, and rather forced, sense.

Section 20.—Fragment 0: The Object of Inference is an Ideal Construction.

(1) NVT, p. 127, l. 1. vastu-vacane'py artha-śabdasya lakṣyā-saṁbhavād aviṣayaṁ lakṣaṇam. na hi Dinnāga-mate kiṁcid asti vastu yan nāntarīyakaṁ sad-dhetur bhavati: yathā 'ha—

SARVO 'YAM ANUMĀNĀNUMEYA-BHĀVO BUDDHYĀRŪDHENA Fragment DHARMA-DHARMI-BHĀVENA NA BAHIḤ SAD-ASATTVAM ^(prose). APEKSATE

--iti.

(2) NVT,p. 39,1.12. tathā cāgamānusamdhānena pratijnāyāh kalpita-viṣayatvam api nirākṛtam veditavyam, yadā 'hur eke—
SARVO 'YAM ANUMĀNĀNUMEYA-VYAVAHĀRO BUDDHYĀRŪDHENAIVA DHARMA-DHARMI-BHĀVENA NA BAHIḤ SADASATTVAM APEKṣATE

—iti.

(3) Śloka-vārtika, nirālambana-vāda, 167-168.
nanv asaty api bāhye 'rthe buddhyārūḍhena¹ sidhyati vāsanā-śabda-bhedottha-vikalpa-pravibhāgataḥ.

¹ The text has, mistakenly, buddhyārūḍhe na. Jhā's translation implies buddhyārūḍhena.

nyāya-vidbhir idam coktam dharmādau buddhim āśrite vyavahāro 'numānādeh kalpyate na bahih-sthite.

Pārthasārathi Miśra's Nyāyaratnākara, ad loc. vṛddhānām apy asmadīyānām idam evā 'bhimatam ity āha nyāya-vidbhir iti.

SARVA EVĀ 'NUMANANUMEYA-VYAVAHĀRO BUDDHYĀRŪDHENA DHARMA-DHARMI-NYĀYENA NA BAHIḤ-SATTĀM APEKṢATA

iti Dinnāgenoktam iti.

Context and translation.

1. Vācaspati is referring to the passage in Uddyotakara's comment on NS, I, i, 5, in which a criticism is given of Dinnāga's definition of anumāna as nāntarīyakārtha-darśanam tad-vidaḥ (fragment G, above). As against this definition he brings the following argumentum ad hominem (not adduced by Uddyotakara): "Since the word 'artha' signifies a real thing, the definition has nothing to which it can refer: because the thing defined cannot exist. For on Dinnāga's view there is no real thing which could be 'inseparably connected with the probandum' so as to be a valid reason. As he has said:

"'This whole business of probans and probandum depends on the relation of quality and possessor of quality—a relation which is imposed by thought; and it has no reference to an

external existence and non-existence."

2. Vācaspati is here referring to Uddyotakara's comment (NV, p. 17, ll. 14-18) on Vātsyāyana's statement āgamaḥ pratijñā—'The Proposition is testimony' (NBh, p. 5, l. 3 on NS, I, i, 1). The objection is made that the Proposition is something to be proved; whereas if it has the authority of 'testimony'—which is an independent pramāṇa—it would be already proved. Uddyotakara replies that there is nothing to prevent a man's conveying to another as a reasoned truth what he himself accepts as established by authority. Vācaspati adds that this applies to the fundamental truths which it is the function of the Nyāya as a system to convey: but that Vātsyāyana does not mean that in all inferences the propo-

sition is 'testimony.' He then adds: "And by his thus connecting the Proposition with testimony it is to be understood that the reference of the proposition to a suppositious subject is rejected: since certain persons have said: 'This whole business of probans and probandum depends on nothing but the relation of quality and quality-possessor—a relation merely imposed by thought; and does not refer to external existence and non-existence.'"

3. Kumārila is arguing that the Bauddha sceptic who maintains all things (including the means of proof themselves) to be unreal, cannot consistently use reasoning to establish his position. The Bauddha suggests in reply that a relative or merely phenomenal reality (samvṛti) provides the sceptic with all that he needs:

"Even though no external object exists, conclusions are established by means of what is merely imposed by the understanding, as the result of differentiating those fictions of the understanding which arise from 'impressions' (mental dispositions) and from (the use of) language. And (our) logicians have said: 'The *probans*, etc., work on qualities, etc., which are grounded in thought and have no external existence.'"

Pārthasārathi Miśra's comment on this is:

"'Our logicians have said': That is, our ancient writers have maintained this very position. Thus Dinnaga says: This whole (sarva eva) business of probans and probandum depends on the relation of quality and quality-possessor—a relation imposed by thought; and it does not refer to external existence.'"

See Keith, ILA, p. 102, n. 2; he refers to passages (1) and (3). Identifica-Vidyābhūṣaṇa does not appear to have noted this fragment. It is even better accredited than the rest of these fragments, as both Vācaspati and Pārthasārathi attribute it to Dinnāga by name. The fact that Kumārila deals with it in the nirā-lambana-vāda suggests that the fragment may be found in Dinnāga's Ālambana-parīkṣā, or in his vṛthi thereon.

Keith's statement that Dinnaga "emphatically denies that

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there can be any real thing indissolubly connected" is an inadvertence. It is Vācaspati who denies that—on Dinnāga's view-there can be any indissoluble connection of real things. This point has some importance in view of the fact that Stcherbatsky and Keith both argue that Dinnāga's idealistic position provided him with a basis for the doctrine of indissoluble connection: of which doctrine he is, partly on that ground, supposed to be the originator. See Keith, ILA, pp. 103-104. " A priori, therefore, it is more reasonable to assume that Praśastapāda owes the principle " (of indissoluble connection) "to a school in which it had a natural right to exist." The fact is that the Naiyāyika, so far from admitting that the principle has a natural right to exist in an idealistic system, emphatically denies that such a system has any right to such an idea. And I think there is no evidence that Dinnaga himself ever bases his doctrine of indissoluble connection on his idealism

Section 21.— Fragment P: Definition of Discussion ($V\bar{a}da$)

NV, p. 124, l. 8. svayam vacana-višeṣakāni bahūni vākyāni prayuktāni. tad yathā—

Dinnāga's definition.

(For translation and context see fragment L, p. 39, above. Vācaspati adds nothing material in his comment here. But the fragment raises a problem: because in a later passage the Vārttika cites and criticises in great detail another almost identical definition, which Vācaspati Miśra, in his comment ad loc., definitely attributes to 'Subandhu'—i.e., presumably, Vasubandhu. The passages referred to are as follows:)

'Subandhu's' definition.

NV, p. 151, l. 20. apare tu sva-para-pakṣa-siddhy-asiddhy-artham vacanam vāda iti vāda-lakṣanam varṇayanti.

NVT, p. 218, l. 9. tad evam svābhimatam vāda-lakṣaṇam

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vyākhyāya saubandhavam lakṣaṇam dūṣayitum upanyasyati apare tv iti.

The definition is not explicitly attributed to Dinnaga, but Identificathe context leaves no room for doubt that Vācaspati intends tion. the attribution. It is clear that Dinnaga's definition is merely an amended version of Vasubandhu's, the amendment consisting in breaking up the compound sva-para-paksa-siddhyasiddhy-artham into sva-para-paksayoh siddhy-asiddhy-artham.1 Uddyotakara's point against Dinnāga's amended formula is Uddyotathat nothing is gained by the uncompounded form which cism. Dinnāga substitutes for the compound sva-para-paksa-siddhyasiddhy-artham. For instance, even when the compound is thus resolved the definition remains open to the objection that the phrase 'proving and disproving one's own and the other party's position' leaves it undecided which of the two is to be proved and which disproved. And if you say that the one sense is inevitable because the other is plainly impossible, then you ought to use the compound. Why? Because your vādābhidhāna² is reckoned as śāstra, and you cannot—in reference to \$\sigma sastra\text{—say}\$ that parsimony in expression is of no account.

The commentators on the present sūtra (NS, I, ii, 1—definition of vāda) are writing with direct reference to some Buddhist text which is regarded as of primary authority (śāstratvenābhyupagata), and is so well known that Uddyotakara refers to one of its 'sūtras' by citing merely the first two

¹ Jhā's translation inadvertently cites the saubandhavam lakṣaṇam in the uncompounded form, thereby making it identical with Dinnāga's definition (transl., vol. i, p. 441).

² NV, p. 156, l. 17. śāstratvena ca vādābhidhānam abhyupagamyate, na ca varņe guru-lāghavam āśrīyata iti na yuktam. Dr. Jhā relies on this passage to establish his contention that 'Subandhu' wrote the Vāda-vidhi or Vāda-vidhāna referred to at NV, p. 121, l. 2 (see his notes at pp. 441 and 454 of vol. i of translation). He supports his view by the ingenious emendation vāda-vidhānam for vādābhidhānam in the present passage. But, apart from this emendation, his view is probably correct: see above, p. 26. vādābhidhānam need not be altered. It would mean: "the definition of vāda is reckoned as śāstra." But the emendation is tempting.

ment of Vasubandhu?

words—sādhana-dūṣanair ity etasmin sūtre (NV, p. 154, l. 3). Another frag- Vācaspati gives the full sūtra—te sādhana-dūsanaih sva-parasahdah sambadhyante, "the words sva- and para- are connected with proving and refuting" (NVT, p. 219, l. 13). 'sūtra' is clearly explanatory of the definition of vāda here criticised: and that definition is itself called a 'sūtra' by Uddvotakara (laghu ca sūtram bhavati—NV, p. 153, l. 15). Further, Vācaspati cites a 'gāthā': nāsti prayojanād istam mukhva-śabdārtha-langhanam—iti gāthā bhavatām. have a verse: 'it is not permissible to depart from the primary meaning of a word (arbitrarily?)."

> It would be a matter of some importance to identify these citations. They may come from the vāda-vidhi referred to by Uddyotakara on NS, I, i, 33, in connection with the definition of pratijnā: and the vāda-vidhi may be the work of Vasubandhu. More can hardly be said. But who was the author of the vāda-vidhāna-tīkā, also mentioned by Uddyotakara in the same connection (NV, p. 120, l. 6)? Was it Dinnaga? If not, in what work is Dinnaga's amendment of 'Subandhu's ' definition of vāda (and of pratijñā, perhaps) to be found?

SECTION 22.—Fragment Q: CRITICISM OF THE 'VAISESIKA' ACCOUNT OF THE UNIVERSAL (Sāmānya).

Sarva-darśana-sangraha, Bauddha-darśana (=Cowell and Gough, p. 21).

Tad uktam-

Fragment.

ANYATRA VARTAMĀNASYA TATO 'NYA-STHĀNA-JANMANI TASMĀD ACALATAH STHĀNĀD VRTTIR ITY ATIYUKTATĀ YATRĀ 'SAU VARTATE BHĀVAS TENA SAMBADHYATE NA TU TADDEŚINAM CA² VYĀPNOTI KIM APY ETAN MAHĀDBHUTAM.³ NA YĀTI NA CA TATRĀ 'SĪD ASTI PASCĀN NA CĀMŚAVAT JAHĀTI PŪRVAM NĀDHĀRAM AHO VYASANA-SAMTATIH.

¹ Similarly at NV, p. 43, l. 14, Uddyotakara speaks of Vasubandhu's definition of perception as a 'sūtra'—yadyapy etat sūtram yathāśruti ² NA (Poussin). bhavati, etc.

³ Poussin (Muséon, n.s. ii, 1901, p. 73, n. 45) says that he thinks it necessary to read na tu Taddesinam na vyāpnoti. He renders: "Où "It has been said:

Translation.

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'It is great dexterity that what resides in one place should, without moving from that place, reside in what comes to exist in a place other than that place.

'It is joined with this thing (which is now coming into existence) in the place where the thing in question is; and yet it does not fail to pervade the thing which is in that place.1 Is not this very wonderful?

'It does not go there—and it was not there before; and yet it is there afterwards—although it is not manifold, and does not quit its former receptacle! What a series of difficulties!"

The Bauddha, expounding the tenet of the momentariness of Context. the existent as such—yat sat, tat ksanikam—gives as a definition of existence artha-kriyā-kāritva, practical efficiency. (The argument is that the existent is what does something: the permanent can do nothing, because causality is inconsistent with permanence:2 therefore the existent is non-permanent momentary.) In this connection he proceeds to deal with a rival theory of the nature of existence, which he attributes to the followers of 'Kanabhakşa and Akşacarana'—Kanāda and Akṣapāda, i.e. the Vaiśeṣikas and Naiyāyikas. This theory is that to exist means to be united with the universal 'Being'—sattā-sāmānya-yogitvam eva sattvam. The Bauddha makes the obvious retort that this will exclude from existence

que se trouve l'être nouveau, il lui est inhérent; et ne cesse pas, pour cela, d'occuper l'objet qui est ici." The emendation may be accepted as almost certainly correct.

¹ Poussin renders: "Il ne s'en va pas (d'ici), il n'était pas là, il n'est pas multiple après (sa second manifestation), il ne quitte pas son premier receptacle." For a variant of the fifth line of the fragment, see below, p. 59.

² Because a permanent cause would produce its effects all at once, there being no reason why it should postpone the production of its effects (samarthasya kṣepāyogāt.—NVT, p. 388, l. 17). And if you say that it will produce a given effect when an 'auxiliary circumstance' (sahakārin) is added to it, then you are giving up the notion of permanent causal entities and adopting the Bauddha doctrine of kurvadrūpa, i.e. of a momentary collocation of circumstances as the cause.

three of the six Vaisesika categories, viz. sāmānya, višesa, and samavāya (since the Vaišesika himself teaches that 'universals 'cannot inhere in universals, or in ultimate differences. or in inherence-relations, but only in substances, qualities, and actions): so that we shall not be able to predicate existence of universals, ultimate differences, or inherences. The Vaisesika answers that these three categories have existence predicated of them in a peculiar sense, each of them having an existence sui generis (tatra svarūpa-sattā-nibandhah sad-vyavahārah).1 The Bauddha objects to this multiplication of meanings of 'existence,' and says that the theory would be confuted by a dilemma of which the two horns are (1) that universal 'Being' does 'run through' everything, (2) that it does not run through" everything.2 As a matter of fact, we do not find any one common presentational form running through things as different as a mountain and a mustard-seed (anugatasya ākārasya apratibhāsanāt). Then, again, the Bauddha asks, is the universal ubiquitous, or only ubiquitous within its own sphere (sarva-qatam svāśraya-sarva-qatam vā)? The first alternative would mean confusion of all things: besides, Prasastapada himself says sva-viśaya-sarva-gatam³— 'ubiquitous in its proper subjects.' Now this second alternative, adopted by Prasastapāda, gives rise to a dilemma:4 when the universal 'beinga-jar' which resides in an already existing jar is joined to a jar elsewhere which is coming into being, does it go from the first jar to be joined to the second, or is it joined to the second without going from the first? In the first alternative, it would be a substance (for only substances are capable of

4. What follows explains the fragment from Dinnaga.

¹ This is Praśastapāda's solution. Cf. *PBh*, p. 19, sāmānyādīnām trayānām svātma-sattvam—the three categories, universality, etc., have their own nature for their being.

³ proktam Praśastapādena sva-viṣaya-sarva-gatam iti. The phrase will be found in PBh, p. 314, l. 20. The explicit reference in the DS passage to Praśastapāda is noteworthy, for it may imply that this fragment from Dinnāga is directed specifically against Praśastapāda.

movement, karma): and in the second alternative it could not be joined to the second jar. Further, either the universal continues to subsist after the jar has been destroyed—or it perishes—or it goes somewhere else. In the first alternative there will be a universal without any place to reside in; in the second, it is improper to give to the universal the epithet 'eternal' (as the Vaiśeṣika does); in the third, it would be a substance (for the reason given above). The theory of the 'universal' is swallowed up by these objections as the moon in an eclipse is swallowed by the demon Rāhu, and is therefore baseless. As has been said—. (Here follows the fragment from Dinnāga.)

"Vidyābhūṣaṇa (HIL, pp. 273-274 footnote) quotes from Identifica-Chapter III of the $Ny\bar{a}ya-d\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}$ of the Jaina logician Dharmabhūṣaṇa the following:

na yāti na ca tatrāste na paścād asti nāmśavat jahāti pūrvam nādhāram aho vyasana-samtatih

—iti Dinnāga-dūṣita-dūṣaṇa-gaṇa-prasara-prasangāt. "'It does not go, it does not stay, it does not exist afterwards, it has no parts, it does not leave its former receptacle—what a congeries of defects!' because this swarm of objections urged by Dinnāga issue out of it . . ." (the theory of the universal must be rejected).

The attribution to Dinnāga is explicit, and there is no reason to doubt its accuracy. The fragment may, perhaps, come from the fifth chapter of the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya*, which treats of the *apoha-vāda*; but Vidyābhūṣaṇa does not identify it with any passage in the Tibetan.

It might be argued that (1) the SDS appears to imply that Dinnāga is referring to Praśastapāda, (2) that if Praśastapāda had been later than Dinnāga he could hardly have

¹ This is the argument of the first two couplets of the fragment.

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² This is the argument of the last couplet of the fragment. But the correspondence would be more complete (and an unnecessary repetition in the couplet itself would be avoided) if we could interpret the *yāti* of the couplet to mean *vinašyati*, 'perishes.'

failed to take notice of this rather damaging piece of dialectic But the reference to Praśastapāda in the SDS in this connection may only indicate that, by the time of Mādhavācarya, the Vaišeṣika commentators prior to Praśāstapāda had been forgotten, his Bhāṣya having superseded earlier commentaries which undoubtedly existed. And Praśastapāda does seem to be conscious of the difficulties involved in the Vaišeṣika doctrine of the real universal, and may have considered that he had met them sufficiently without an explicit polemic against Dinnāga.¹

¹ For further evidence as to the chronological relation between Dinnāga and Praśastapāda, see Appendix I.

APPENDIX I.

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The Nyāya-praveśa and the Nyāya-dvāra, and the Relation of Dinnāga to Praśastapāda.

The Pramāṇa-samuccaya is without doubt Dinnāga's work, for passages which Vācaspati Miśra cites and attributes to Dinnāga by name have been identified by Vidyābhūṣaṇa with passages in the Tibetan version of the Pramāṇa-samuccaya. There is no such corroborative evidence for the attribution either of the Nyāya-praveśa or of the Nyāya-dvāra to Dinnāga. The former is attributed to him by Tibetan tradition (according to Vidyābhūṣaṇa): but Chinese tradition (according to Sugiura and Ui) attributes it to Śamkara Svāmin, making Dinnāga the author of the Nyāya-dvāra. It seems quite clear that the Nyāya-dvāra is an earlier work than the Nyāya-praveśa; and there is no reason to doubt the correctness of the Chinese attribution of the Nyāya-dvāra to Dinnāga. That being the case, it is impossible that Dinnāga should have been the author of the Nyāya-praveśa.

Therefore the relation of Praśastapāda to Dinnāga cannot be argued on the basis of comparison between the Nyāya-praveśa and Praśastapāda-bhāṣya, except on the assumption that the Nyāya-praveśa is identical in teaching with the other two works. This assumption seems, however, to be very largely justified: for there seems to be very little that is original in the Nyāya-praveśa. And so Stcherbatsky's earlier (1904) view that Dinnāga was prior to Praśastapāda may logically be confirmed by comparisons between the Nyāya-praveśa and Praśastapāda-bhāṣya, even if we arrive at the conclusion that the Nyāya-praveśa was compiled later than Praśastapāda-bhāṣya. But it is of course safer to rely on

comparison with the fragments of the $Pram\bar{u}na$ -samuccaya and with the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $dv\bar{u}ra$ (so far as the nature of the latter work is known to us from the accounts of Sugiura and Ui).

In what follows I have brought together certain lines of evidence which might be used to argue the relation of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $dv\bar{a}ra$ to the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $prave\acute{s}a$, and of Pra´sastapāda to Dinnāga.

(a) Classification of fallacies of the thesis (pratijňābhāsa) in the Nyāya-dvāra, Nyāya-praveśa, and Praśastapāda-bhāṣya, with Uddyotakara's observations¹ thereon:

Nyāya-dvāra. Nyāya-praveša. Prašastapāda. c 1. pratyakṣa-viruddha ('sound inaudible'). ('fire cool').

Uddyotakara says that 'sound is inaudible' is not a proper example of $pratyak_{\hat{s}a}$ -viruddha because it is not by perception but by inference that we know sound to be an object of the organ of hearing. He says the right example is 'fire is cool,' i.e. the example given by Praśastapāda. That is to say, he is comparing Praśastapāda with Dinnāga, to the disadvantage of the latter.

2. vikalpa-viruddha (?) ('it is a fine morning'—said when the sun is low in the west).

anumāna-viruddha ('pot eternal').

('space dense').

Uddyotakara says that 'the pot is eternal' (it is supposed to be a proposition maintained fallaciously by a Vaišesika, here) ought to be classed under sva-śāstra-viruddha. (See No. 4 below.) It will be noted that he mentions the example given in the Nyāya-praveśa, and does not refer to that given in the Nyāya-dvāra; but there was nothing to prevent him from referring to developments later than Dinnāga, and we need not infer that he regarded the Nyāya-praveśa as Dinnāga's—if it is from the Nyāya-praveśa that he took this example.

¹ NV, p. 116, l. 18 to p. 117, l.14.

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3. prasiddha-viruddha (?) ('women and money are abominable things').

loka-viruddha ('man's head is pure, because it is a part of an animate being,' or, 'money is abominable'). Not recognised by Praśastapāda, who, however, inserts as a third rubric:—

Uddyotakara says that what is *prasiddha* must be so by one of the *pramāṇas*, so that there is no room for this as a separate rubric.

abhyupagata-viruddha (which, however, is equated by Prasastapāda himself with āgama-viruddha): 'Brahmans should drink wine.'

Uddyotakara says that 'Brahmans should drink wine' is a proper example of $\bar{a}gama$ -viruddha, whereas the example given by the Bauddha of $\bar{a}gama$ -viruddha is not a proper example.

4. āgama-viruddha (?) ('sound is eternal' when maintained by a Vaiśeṣika).

āgama-viruddha¹ ('sound is eternal').

(See No. 3 above.)

sva - śāstra - viruddha ('effects exist before their production' said by one who maintains the asat-kāryavāda).

Uddyotakara says that for the Vaiseşika the doctrine of the non-eternity is sound is not based on authority but on inference. Therefore the example given by the Bauddha is not an example of āgama-viruddha, but of anumāna-viruddha. If this is to count as an example of āgama-viruddha, then 'the pot is eternal' ought also to be classed as āgama-viruddha—but the Bauddha has given it as an example of anumāna-viruddha. The proper example of āgama-viruddha is 'Brahmans should drink wine' (which Praśastapāda

¹ I am indebted to Mr. A. B. Dhruva for the information that in the Sanskrit Nyāya-praveśa three of the rubrics are anumāna-viruddha, loka-viruddha, and āgama-viruddha.

gives under $abhyupagata-viruddha = \bar{a}gama-viruddha$. See No. 3).

It seems that $sva-ś\bar{a}stra-viruddha$ is an innovation in terminology introduced by Praśastapāda. We must suppose that his abhyupagata-viruddha was intended as a correction of the Bauddha rubric No. 3, while his $sva-ś\bar{a}stra-viruddha$ is meant as an improvement on the Bauddha rubric No. 4. He presumably meant that the only possible sense of prasiddha-viruddha is $\bar{a}gama-viruddha$; and that the example which the Bauddha gives of $\bar{a}gama-viruddha$ ought to be classed separately as $sva-ś\bar{a}stra-viruddha$, as being opposed not to authority merely, but to the reasoning advanced in the $ś\bar{a}stra$.

5. sva-vacana-viruddha ('words have no dha ('my mother is barren').

sva-vacana-viruddha ('my mother is barren').

These five rubrics are the only ones recognised by the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $dv\bar{a}ra$ and by Praśastapāda. But the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ -praveśa adds four others:

6.	A thesis with an unaccepted subject:
	'God is almighty.'
7,	A thesis with an
	unaccepted predicate.
8.	A thesis with both
	an unaccepted sub-
	ject and an unac-
선하는 경기에 보니 얼마나 없	cepted predicate.
9.	A thesis univers-
	ally accepted: 'Fire
성, 회사 사는 회사인 등 가고 뭐	is warm.'

Comparison of the three classifications indicates that the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ -praveśa supplements the doctrine of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ -dv $\bar{a}ra$, and that Praśastapāda emends the latter. The inference would seem to be that both the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ -praveśa and Praśastapāda were later than the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ -dv $\bar{a}ra$. And there is some probability that Praśastapāda was either earlier than the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ -praveśa, or contemporary with the author of that work.

On the other hand, Vidyābhūṣaṇa, Ui, and Stcherbatsky

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have all produced evidence which shows that doctrines found in the Praśastapāda-bhasya, but not found in the Vaiśesika sūtra, are referred to both by Dinnaga himself and by Buddhist writers earlier than Dinnaga. For instance, Vidyabhūsana (HIL., p. 279 footnote) says that the Pramāna-samuccaya cites an explanation of the Vaisesika sūtra on perception which closely corresponds with Prasastapada's explanation. There seems to me no room for doubt, in view of the evidence referred to, that there were Vaisesika commentators before Praśastapāda, whose comments Praśastapāda embodied in his Bhāsya, and that it is these earlier commentators who are cited and referred to by Dinnaga and his Bauddha predecessors. There are numerous passages in the Bhāsya in which Prasastapāda makes a brief statement, and then says precisely the same thing in another and amplified form: and the suggestion certainly is that he is commenting on a scholium in these passages.) It seems to me that this alone will explain how Stcherbatsky, in 1904 and in 1924, has been able to produce excellent reasons for holding the contradictory conclusions (1) that Prasastapada borrowed from Dinnaga, and (2) that Dinnāga borrowed, through Vasubandhu, from Prasastapāda. The evidence does in fact prove both theses at once—so long as we assume that Prasastapada was the first writer to introduce these notions into the Vaisesika school. We are forced, then, to give up that assumption, and to suppose that Praśastapāda was a borrower: not, however, from Dinnāga though I do not doubt that he sometimes writes with reference to Dinnaga—but from his predecessors in his own school, whose doctrines Dinnaga had criticised. This supposition will explain the various evidences which I now adduce.

(b) The Bauddha doctrine of the five kalpanās, and Praśastapāda's five viśeṣaṇas (the 'five predicables'), in the theory of perception.

Dinnāga objects in the *Pramāṇa-samuccaya* that the *Naiyā yika* (Vātsyāyana in the *Nyāya-bhāṣya*, which he is here attack

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ing) failed to connect his doctrine of perception with 'generality, particularity, substance, quality, and action,' although he has borrowed his definition of perception from the Vaisesikas. The order in which the five predicables are mentioned agrees with that of the five visesanas enumerated by Prasastapāda (Viz. edn., p. 186) in describing the five types of 'qualified perception': this substance exists (sāmānya); this substance is earth-substance (viśeṣa); the cow has horns (qualified by dravya); the cow is white (guna); the cow goes (karma). Praśastapāda's account might in fact be a reply to Dinnāga's sceptical analysis of determinate (savikalpaka) perception, which holds that the determinations (vikalpa) are mere fictions (kalpanā), and that pure perception must be kalpanāpodha, devoid of determinations. Dinnāga's own list of the five kalpanās differs from Praśastapāda's by adding 'name' and by uniting 'generality' and 'particularity' under the single head of jāti. But, in view of the obvious relation of the viśesanas to the Vaiśesika categories, it would hardly be suggested that Prasastapada borrowed his visesanas from Dinnāga's kalpanās. Both lists must derive from Vaišesika sources.

(c) The trairūpya.

Any suggestion that the three 'canons of syllogism' are taken from Buddhist logic is discounted by the fact that Praśastapāda himself cites a couplet which states the doctrine, and which attributes it to 'Kāśyapa,' i.e. to the Vaiśeṣika school. The effrontery of such a claim, if the doctrine had really originated recently in the Bauddha schools, would be incredible. Moreover, the doctrine is already implicitly present in Vātsyāyana's Bhāṣya on NS, V, i, 34, and even in that sūtra itself. And Sugiura states that the doctrine of the Nine Reasons—which implies and follows from the trairūpya—is attributed by Dinnāga himself to 'Socmock,' i.e. Akṣapāda. But the attribution is a little difficult to understand, since Dinnāga was conversant with the Nyāya-sūtra, and there

APPEN. I.

is no explicit formulation therein of the Nine Reasons. Praśastapāda does not give the Nine Reasons, though he recognises two different forms of the valid middle term, as formulated in the Nine Reasons. Possibly Dinnāga was the first
to formalise explicitly the hetu-cakra, or Nine Reasons, out
of the trairūpya doctrine as already developed by Vaiśeṣika
logic, partly on the basis of the classification of fallacies given
by the Vaiśeṣika-sūtra. For there is really nothing in the
trairūpya doctrine which is not contained in the passage of
Vātsyāyana just referred to, taken in combination with the
classification of fallacies in the Vaiśeṣika-sūtra. (The doctrine
of vyāpti is not explicit in the trairūpya.) It may be that

(d) The controversy about the reality of universals.

merely that it was implicit in the Nyāya-sūtra.

Dinnaga, in attributing the Nine Reasons to Socmock, meant

The lines cited by the Sarva-darśana-samgraha, and attributed by a Jaina logician to Dinnāga, attack a Vaiśeṣika doctrine of the real universal which is identical with the teaching of Praśastapāda. The Sarva-darśana-samgraha mentions Praśastapāda by name in the immediate context: and we might be inclined to infer that it was Praśastapāda whom Dinnāga was attacking—an inference which might be supported by the consideration that Praśastapāda does not reply to Dinnāga's criticism, as he might have been expected to do if he had written later than Dinnāga, seeing that the attack is distinctly damaging.

But the doctrine of Praśastapāda is fundamentally that taught in the seventeen $s\bar{u}tras$ which constitute VS, I, ii. (Keith has maintained that VS, I, ii, 3 teaches the subjectivity of the universal: but it is impossible to maintain this in the face of the explicit statement of VS, I, ii, 8, and of the general trend of the section.) There was probably nothing so individual in Praśastapāda's doctrine as to necessitate the supposition that he in particular is the object of Diùnāga's attack. As to the suggestion that he does not reply, it may

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be that he considered his own re-statement of the doctrine in itself a sufficient reply-e.g., his statement that universals are ubiquitous each within its proper sphere although they have no local habitation (aparicchinna-deśa), that there is a definite totality of conditions (kāraṇa-sāmagrī-niyama) requisite for the manifestation of the universal in the individual, and that universals cannot be designated in empty space (antarāle avyapadeśyāni) because they cannot reside there either by relation of conjunction (samyoga) or by that of inherence (samavāya). Prabhākara was able to give a further reply, from which Praśastapāda was precluded by the Vaiśeṣika doctrine of the eternity of the samavāya relation: "When a new individual belonging to a class is brought into existence, what is brought into existence is not the class-character, which is ever present, but only the relation (inherence) of the individual with that class-character. There is nothing objectionable in the production of inherence, because inherence, according to Prabhākara, is not eternal (as held by the logician)" (Jhā, PSPM, p. 100).

(e) Real relations as the basis of inference.

Praśastapāda argues against the interpretation of Vaiśeṣikasūtra, IX, ii, 1, as reducing the basis of inference to real relations. This interpretation of the sūtra would make it agree
with the view of the Bauddha logicians, who classify inferences
according as they are based on the real relations of causality,
and identity (tadutpatti and tādātmya. The third class was
inference by non-perception, anupalabdhi). But Praśastapāda does not refer to this Buddhist doctrine, as he might
have been expected to do if he had written later than Dinnāga,
who made use of it, and was perhaps the first to do so.

The argument is only from silence. But it would have weight if supported by other lines of evidence.

(f) The 'antinomic reason.'

If Dinnaga was the originator of the conception of the antinomic reason, viruddhāvyabhicārin, which is found in the

Nyāya-dvāra, as well as in the Nyāya-praveśa, then it is definitely proved that Praśastapāda came later: for he refers to the viruddhāvyabhicārin by name, and gives reasons for rejecting the conception. This argument has had great weight with me, in the absence of any indication that the viruddhāvyabhicārin was mentioned by any writer earlier than Dinnāga.

(g) The conception of inseparable connection, a- $vin\bar{a}$ - $bh\bar{a}va$ or $vy\bar{a}pti$.

Sugiura states that the Nyāya-dvāra expressly objects to the argument from particular to particular, devoting fully two pages to the subject. Dinnāga is said to have "introduced a universal proposition to take the place of the old analogical examples." And the doctrine of vyāpti seems to be clearly enunciated in the Pramāṇa-samuccaya fragment: grāhyadharmas tad-amśena vyāpto hetuh.

But whether Dinnāga originated the conception is another question, and so far as I know no evidence has yet been produced to show that it originated in the Bauddha rather than in the Vaišeṣika school. It has been very generally assumed that Dinnāga was its author: but this assumption probably arises from the accident that Uddyotakara, in his powerful attack on the notion of avinābhāva, associates the doctrine with Dinnāga. But this is merely in accordance with his normal habit of ignoring Vaišeṣika logic, where he differs from it, and taking for his opponent the Bauddha, whose logical conceptions are very largely identical with those of the Vaišeṣika: for he could not attack the sister-śāstra directly. I cannot see any cogent reason for giving Dinnāga the credit of inventing the doctrine of inseparable connection.

(h) Classification of the 'contradictory middle term.'

Praśastapāda gives no divisions of the contradictory reason viruddha-hetv-ābhāsa, while the Nyāya-dvāra and the Nyāya-praveśa both give a fourfold division. This may only show

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that the *Bauddha* logicians introduced a formal development into the earlier *Vaišeṣika* logic which they borrowed, and that Praśastapāda was not prepared to accept the innovation.

(i) Fallacies of exemplification.

Praśastapāda has a heading here, āśrayāsiddha, which is not found in the Nyāya-dvāra and the Nyāya-praveśa; and his rubrics lingāsiddha, anumeyāsiddha, and ubhayāsiddha, replace (apparently) the terms linga-vyāvytta, anumeya-vyāvrtta, and ubhaya-vyāvrtta of the Nyāya-dvāra (see Sugiura, p. 68). And Praśastapāda's terminology is certainly unhappy. because he has already used ubhayāsiddha and anumeyāsiddha in a different sense as names of two varieties of the asiddhahetv-ābhāsa. If he came after Dinnāga, he would have been wiser to profit by Dinnaga's less confusing terminology here. And therefore it might be argued that Dinnaga came after Praśastapāda and improved on his terminology. This argument seems to me to have considerable weight in itself, but not to outweigh the evidence for the contrary inference. We may credit Prasastapada here with unwillingness to accept even gifts from the enemy.

(j) Dūṣaṇābhāsa.

These are the dialectical appearances of refutation, or $j\bar{a}ti$, treated of in the fifth book of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $s\bar{u}tra$. The $Ny\bar{a}ya$ - $dv\bar{a}ra$ gives a list of fourteen, ascribing them to 'Socmock,' i.e. Akṣapāda — Gautama. This is another interesting example of the Bauddha logicians' consciousness that their logic was only an offshoot of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$. Praśastapāda does not mention $d\bar{u}san\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sa$ at all.

No inference as to the relation between Praśastapāda and Dinnāga can be drawn from this difference. I mention it merely as an indication of the danger of the inferences which we do make. For, if we had not known that the doctrine of the jāti is given in the Nyāya-sūtra, we should not improbably have argued from the silence of Praśastapāda on the subject that he must have been earlier than Dinnāga.

APPENDIX II.

SUMMARY OF BUDDHIST LOGICAL DOCTRINES REFERRED
TO IN THE FRAGMENTS.

There are two sources of knowledge, perception and inference, The two praand not four as the Naiyāyika holds. 'Comparison' is only Comparison
the perception of preponderant sameness of qualities in two not a pramāna.
things (fragment N); or else (so far as our knowledge of the Fragment N
sameness is derived from the statement of another) it is
reducible to Testimony. But Testimony again is not a separate Testimony
source of knowledge, for the Naiyāyika defines it as the statemāna.
ment of a credible witness; and our knowledge of the credibility of the witness is derived either from our perception of
the fact averred by him or from an inference as to his credibility drawn from our observation that his other statements
have been corroborated (fragment E).

Perception.

Perception was defined by Vasubandhu as 'knowledge Perception arising from the thing itself' (p. 10, supra). This would Note to inevitably raise the problem of distinguishing between the Fragment A. elements which might be regarded as actual presentations and those which seem rather to be accretions contributed by the imagination. Dinnāga accordingly abstracted the five predi-The 'pure cables, namely generic character, specific character, relation to other substances, quality, and action—as 'fictions of the understanding' (kalpanā), from the momentary existent (ksana, svalakṣana) which alone is the object (grāhya) of pure perception; and he therefore defined perception as devoid of Fragment A. determinations (kalpanāpodha). As against such a view the

71

Validity of predication.

Vaišeṣika argued that the five predicables (višeṣana) are given in perception no less than the object itself as qualified by them: there being thus two moments in perception—one consisting in bare intuition (ālocana-mātra) of the unrelated characters (svarūpa), the other consisting in determinate perception, i.e. perception of the object as qualified by the characters. This teaching, first found in the Bhāṣya of Praśastapāda, was adopted by the Nyāya in the form of the distinction between nirvikalpaka-pratyakṣa (approximately equivalent to the 'simple apprehension' of Western logic) and savikalpaka-pratyakṣa, or perception of the object as qualified by the characters previously apprehended in the moment of nirvikalpaka-pratyakṣa.

It is natural to connect this teaching of the reality of the predicables with the doctrine of the real universal maintained by the Vaiśeṣika school, though it must be confessed that the connection is not suggested by Praśastapāda himself,¹ and that the doctrine of the real universal does not appear to be organically related to the Vaiśeṣika realism. The universal was treated as a separate category, co-ordinate with substance, quality, action, etc., and was asserted to be eternal and perceptible (aindriyaka). Dinnāga points out the difficulties in such a position (pp. 56-61). The Bauddha, reducing reality to unique momentary existents which have nothing in common with each other and of which the identity is constituted merely by the negative conception of excluding what is other (apoha), could not, of course, admit real and permanent universals.

Universals unreal. Fragment Q.

Substance unreal. Fragment D. Similarly he rejects the Vaisesika doctrine of the perceptibility of substance, arguing that it is inconsistent to maintain that colour is the specific object of vision, and at the same time to assert that substance is visible (p. 17). Nor can we be said to have perception of concrete wholes, as the Naiyāyika maintains; for perception is 'knowledge arising from the thing itself' (p. 10), while what we call perception of (e.g.)

¹ It is indicated by the tenth-century commentator, Śrīdhara.

a jar is really a cognition arising (not from the concrete whole as such, but) from colour, etc. (p. 11). The Bauddha of course rejects the notion of substance, or of concrete wholes, since for him the existent means the momentary (yat sat, tat ksanikam). And for just this reason his opponents argued that he had no right to the conception of things as indissolubly or universally connected-for on his showing there are no 'things' (artha) to be indissolubly connected (pp. 52 and 54).

The Nyāya Sūtra (NS, I, i, 4) had defined perception as Criticism of knowledge arising from contact of sense-organ with object. the supposed contact with Dinnaga points out that on such a view the perception the object in perception. of distance, or of objects larger than the organ of vision, Fragment C. is difficult to explain (pp. 14-16), and that we shall sometimes at least have to admit that the organ functions without getting at the object (aprāpya-kāritva, p. 15). The Nyāya Bhāsya had added manas to the list of sense-organs manas as involved in perceptual contact, on the authority of the sister-tention and śāstra, the Vaiśeṣika: perhaps because it is obvious that mere sense. contact of organ of external sense with an object does not give Fragment B. rise to perception, unless the further factor of attention is present. Dinnaga retorts that the Nyaya Sūtra certainly needed a special organ of sense-perception to explain the apprehension of the soul's own states, since these are treated as qualities perceptible in just the same way in which the qualities of external objects are perceived; but that Vātsyāyana's method of supplying the defects of the sūtra is hardly satisfactory (pp. 13-14). The Bauddha himself does not accept the view that mental states are objects of internal perception (mānasa-pratyaksa), but holds that the passing states are self-conscious (samvedya, pp. 9-10). Presumably, therefore, he had no use for manas.

Inference.

Inference is drawn through three kinds of inferential ' mark ' or middle term, based either on causal relation, or on identity, or on our non-perception of what would have been

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Universal connection is the basis of inference. Fragment G.

perceived if present (p. 68). These are of course real relations for the Vaisesika, from whom the Bauddha borrows them; but, as they are merely ideal constructions for the Bauddha, and inconsistent with his view of reality, Vācaspati Misra seems to be justified in arguing that Dinnaga has no right to the notion of inseparable connection (vyāpti, avinābhāva) which he makes the nerve of his doctrine of inference (pp. 52 and 54). The instrument of inference is defined as the experience of a thing which is inseparably connected with another thing when the experiencer is aware of the connection (p. 21); and conformably with this a valid middle term or reason is characterised as a Fragment M. property of the Subject which is pervaded by (vyāpta), or inseparably connected with, another aspect or property of the Subject (pp. 46-48).

Fragment F. The probandum.

Dinnāga, Uddyotakara, and Kumārila raise the question: What precisely is the probandum in an inference? No doubt the ambiguity of the term anumeya or sādhya (to which Vātsyāyana had already called attention) suggested the question; but it is not a mere matter of definition of a term, for important logical issues are involved in the answer given. The prima facie view is that the property P is the thing-to-beproved; but plainly this is inadequate, for we are not concerned in an inference with P as such, but with P-in-relation-to-S: and this is the view at which Dinnaga arrives (pp. 18-21). Uddyotakara's view is difficult to distinguish from this; but he criticises Dinnaga, apparently on the ground that, starting, as Dinnāga does, from an abstract connection of P-in-general with M-in-general in the 'vyāpti' or major premise, it is impossible to arrive in the conclusion at a concrete S-qualifiedby-P. We should perhaps express his difficulty by saying that on such a view the syllogism is guilty of quaternio terminorum:

> M is P, S is M. therefore S is SP,

where the particularised P of the conclusion is not identifiable with the P-in-general of the major premise. That is why Uddyotakara attacks the doctrine that $vy\bar{a}pti$ is the nerve of inference in this context. His own view is that inference is based on the similarity (not identity) between concrete XP and concrete SP, and that M and P can only be connected in a concrete dharmin, falling apart when abstracted from the thing which possesses them. He maintains that the probandum is a particular case of M as qualified by P—or, symbolised, neither P, nor SP, but SMP. In other words, inference is the passage from XMP to SMP. M is seen to be probative of P in XMP, and inference is the process of parāmarśa, through which we see that it is also probative of P in SMP. There is no such thing as abstract connection of properties M and P: inference is from particular to particular, or rather from concrete to concrete, through similarity, sādharmya.

Kumārila raises the further question whether we can have 'Fourth what we should call a Fourth Figure conclusion. He puts the 'Figure' conquestion in the form: Can we have as our probandum P-qualified-by-S (dharmi-visiṣṭa-dharma), or must our probandum always be S-qualified-by-P (dharma-visiṣṭa-dharmin)? His answer is that no reasonable meaning can be attached to the Fourth Figure conclusion, P-qualified-by-S.

Uddyotakara makes a powerful and in part justifiable The para-attack on the doctrine of universal connections between syllogism. abstract qualities, substituting for $vy\bar{a}pti$ as the nerve of inference the more concrete conception of $par\bar{a}mar\dot{s}a$, the connection of properties in their subject (dharmin). This is in accord with the original teaching of the school, for both the $S\bar{u}tra$ and the $Bh\bar{a}\dot{s}ya$ formulate inference as based on the likeness of the case under investigation to examples ($ud\bar{a}harana - s\bar{a}dharmya$), so that the syllogism was paradeigmatic in its earlier formulation, and continued to retain strong traces of its character as an argument from examples even after the $Ny\bar{a}ya$ school had adopted the doctrine of $vy\bar{a}pti$ from $Vai\dot{s}e\dot{s}ika - Bauddha$ logic.

¹ Vātsyāyana uses these phrases, saying that $s\bar{a}dhya$ may have either of these meanings. (NBh, p. 41, l. 10 [on NS, I, i, 36].)

Thus the Canons of Syllogism, as formulated in the trairūpya and in the conception of trilakṣaṇa hetu, are essentially an attempt to state the conditions under which similarity to examples constitutes proof; and the Indian syllogism has always retained the habit of mentioning an example in its major premise, and gives the name 'Exemplification' (udāharaṇa, nidarśana) to that 'member' of the syllogism.

Trairūpya, or Canon of Syllogism. Fragment H.

Dinnāga's formulation of the trairūpya agrees with that cited by Prasastapāda as from an earlier Vaišesika writer (p. 23): a valid reason is (i) a property of S, (ii) which is present in cases like S, and (iii) absent in cases unlike S. This teaching merely draws out the implications of the earliest Naiyāyika view of inference, though the explicit formulation of it probably came from the Vaisesika school, and was no doubt partly suggested by the classification of fallacies as contradictory (asat)1 and inconclusive (saindigdha) in the Vaisesika Sūtra: the former fallacy suggesting the canon of absence in unlike cases, the latter that of presence in (only) like cases. Uddvotakara criticises the formulation of the trairūpya on the grounds (1) that it seems to insist on the necessity both of affirmative instances, XP, and of negative instances, X-non-P, although as a matter of fact there are valid types of argument which are either purely positive (kevalānvayin), no negative instances being available, or purely negative (kevalavyatirekin), no positive instances being available (pp. 24-25); (2) that it is necessary to insert restrictive phrases

1 asat is usually interpreted as =asiddha, the 'unreal' reason which is not in fact found in S. So Keith, ILA, p. 133, following what appears to be Praśastapāda's interpretation of the sūtra. But Praśastapāda is really reading two classes—asiddha and viruddha—into the one rubric, asat, of the sūtra. The example given by the sūtra—"this is a horse because it has horns"—is almost certainly intended as an example of a middle which proves the contradictory (viruddha): though of course horses have no horns, and therefore the example would also exemplify asiddha. It seems to me that the conception of asiddha is a relatively late addition to the classification of fallacies. The sandigdha and the viruddha of course break the second and third canons respectively—presence only in the sapakṣa, and absence in the vipakṣa.

in each canon—S is only M (=All S is M); only XP is M (=All M is P); M is only-not X-non-P (=M never is non-P)—in order to exclude the cases of illicit minor (asiddha) and undistributed middle or illicit major (samdigdha). But if we do this the second or the third canon is otiose, since both mean the same thing; and the second canon contradicts the first, since to say that only XP is M implies that S is not M.1 Uddyotakara's criticism seems to be justified, since the introduction of the doctrine of vyāpti had in fact profoundly modified the older view of inference as an affair of example; and the trairupya is really a statement of the canons of the older or paradeigmatic syllogism.

A formal syllogistic was developed, perhaps by Dinnaga, Formal logic out of the trairupya. The hetu-cakra, or scheme of Nine logism. Reasons, ignores the relation of M to S (the first canon, which Fragment J. serves to exclude asiddha fallacies), and distinguishes nine types of argument on the basis of the relation of the middle term to the sapakṣa XP and the vipakṣa X-non-P—that is, on the basis of the second and third canons. The middle term may reside in all, or some only, or in none of the cases of P (sapakṣa-vyāpaka, sapakṣaikadeśavṛtti, sapakṣāvṛtti); and similarly in all, some, or no non-P (vipakṣavyāpaka, vipakṣaikadeśavrtti, vipakṣāvrtti). Two types are valid (sapakṣavyā-

¹ This is the criticism which Dharmakīrti attempted to meet by the doctrine of aggregative restriction (see pp. 16-17), maintaining that the second canon should be taken to mean "only XP and S are M." But the truth is that the trairupya cannot be patched up to fit the view of inference as an affair of connections between abstract P and M, being essentially a formulation of the paradeigmatic syllogism, which is concerned with concrete SP and XP, and not with abstract P. So that Uddyotakara's criticism is substantially just. And, with regard to the first canon, Dinnaga seems to have left the meaning of anumeya ambiguous. It might mean P in the abstract; in which case Uddyotakara's objection that there is no statement of the requirement that S must be M will be justified; and further, the second and third canons become otiose, since the first one states that All M is P. And if it means S, then there will be in the $trair\bar{u}pya$ no statement of the $vy\bar{a}pti$ between P and M, since the second and third canons are concerned with concrete XP, and not with abstract P.

paka-vipakṣāvṛtti, and sapakṣaikadeśavṛtti-vipakṣāvṛtti); two are contradictory or viruddha (sapakṣāvṛtti-vipakṣavyāpaka, and sapakṣāvṛtti-vipakṣaikadeśavṛtti); the other five are inconclusive or aniścita, though one of them (sapakṣāvṛtti-vipakṣāvṛtti, where M is a peculiar property of P, so that neither positive nor negative instances are forthcoming) holds a special position and is called asādhāraṇa.¹ Uddyotakara argues in the first place that an asādhāraṇa-dharma or peculiar property of S may be a valid reason if there are no instances of non-P; and he points out in the second place that the example which the Bauddha gives of a valid reason, "Sound is non-eternal, because a product," would be purely positive (kevalānvayin) on the Buddhist view that there is nothing eternal! so that the Bauddha ought to provide a place for valid purely positive arguments,² but fails to do so.

Note to Fragment H. The other scheme, of Seven Types (p. 24), ignores the minor details of the hetu-cakra, but takes into account the relation of M to S, i.e. the first canon, thus arriving at the conception of the reason with three characteristics (trilakṣana-hetu) as alone valid: those which have only one or two of the characters being (i) unreal (asiddha), (ii) inconclusive (samdigdha), or (iii) contradictory (viruddha). Uddyotakara repeats the criticism that some of the arguments which have

¹ Uddyotakara draws a necessary distinction between the case where there is no evidence (avidyamānasapakṣa, avidyamānavipakṣa) and the cases where there are instances of P or of non-P, and M is not found in these instances (sapakṣāvṛtti, vipakṣāvṛtti). On the basis of this distinction he is able to recognise as valid the purely positive argument or kevalānvayin (avidyamānavipakṣa-sapakṣavyūṛaka), and the purely negative argument (avidyamānasapakṣa-vipakṣāvṛtti) such as "the organism is endowed with a soul because it has vital functions." This latter, which was subsequently called the kevalavyatirekin, he sometimes denominates the avīta-hetu, sometimes simply vyatirekin, and definitely asserts its validity. As regards the purely positive type see next note.

² It is not clear whether Uddyotakara himself admits the validity of the purely positive argument, as the later Nyāya school does. He never gives an example of such an argument which he would himself admit as valid; and his argument in favour of it never goes beyond the argumentum ad hominem that the Bauddha would have admitted it if he had

been consistent with himself.

only two of the characters (i.e., satisfy either the second or the third canon, but not both) are either valid purely negative arguments, or are given by the Bauddha himself as examples of valid arguments, although on his own theories they should belong to the purely positive type.

Fallacies.

Besides fallacies of the middle term, Dinnaga, like Prasastapāda, recognised fallacies of the Exemplification or major premise (udāharanābhāsa), which speaking very roughly might be equated with 'inductive fallacies'; and fallacies of the thesis or Proposition.

1. Fallacies of the middle term include, besides the unreal, 1. Hetvābhāsa. the inconclusive, and the contradictory reasons connected with the formal syllogistic outlined in the preceding paragraphs, the case of antinomy or antinomic reason (viruddhāvyabhicārin). An antinomy would exist where two otherwise The antivalid reasons led to contradictory conclusions. This concep-nomy; see pp. 68-69. tion was accepted by the later Nyāya school, under the title of satpratipaksa; but Prasastapāda rejects Dinnāga's doctrine, arguing that either one of the reasons is less cogent than the other, in which case the thesis supported by the less cogent reason should be classed as a fallacious thesis;1 or else the coexistence in the Subject of a pair of properties, which, taken alone, lead to contradictory conclusions, is a peculiar property (asādhārana) of the subject in question, in which case it falls under his rubric of anadhyavasita, an appearance of reason which really leads to no conclusion at all. For Prasastapada Prasastarejects Dinnāga's classification of the asādhārana as a species cism of Dinof inconclusive argument (samdigdha, aniścita), on the ground naga's treatthat a doubtful reason is one in which there is some evidence asadhāraņa though the evidence is inconclusive; whereas in the case of an asādharana-dharma or peculiar property there are from the

¹ He uses the word viruddha of such a reason—which does not mean the viruddha-hetvābhāsa, but stands for viruddha as used in the names of the varieties of pratijñābhāsa.

nature of the case no similar cases, and therefore no evidence at all; and mere absence of evidence is not a ground of doubt (samdehakārana), but leads to no conclusion at all (adhyavasāyam na karoti)—not even to an inconclusive conclusion.

Fragment K. The asiddha.

One fragment (pp. 34-36) indicates some doubt on Dinnaga's part as to the nature and reality of the asiddha fallacy. is no doubt that he did class it as one of the fallacies of the middle term (hetvābhāsa). His scheme of Seven Types referred to above would suffice to prove this, and Sugiura states explicitly that he did so in the Nyāya-dvāra. But here we find him saying that valid and fallacious middles are alike paksadharma, resident in S,-which accords with his ignoring of the first canon in his scheme of Nine Types.

2. Pratijāābhāsa and the bhāsa.

2. Fallacies of the thesis correspond to the bādhita fallacy $b\bar{a}dhita-hetv\bar{a}$ of the classical $Ny\bar{a}ya$, which held that the valid reason must be possessed not only of the three characters formulated in the trairupya, but also of two further characters—it must not be sat pratipaksa, or antinomised, and it must not be bādhita, or annulled by prior knowledge. The valid reason is therefore described as pañcarūpopapanna, possessed of five characters. Details of the fallacies of thesis have been given at pp. 62-64, supra. The conception of a fallacious thesis is open to logical objection, since the argument in support of a thesis which is 'annulled' by facts cannot satisfy the canons of syllogism, and will be reducible to one of the fallacies of middle term. But the practical convenience of at once cutting short an opponent who propounds an absurdity is obvious; and in dealing with an opponent who is prepared to maintain that black is white, or that the law of contradiction does not hold. there is really no other course open. He puts himself out of court at once.

3. Udāharanābhāsa.

3. Fallacies of exemplification disappear from later logic, their place being taken by the extended meaning given to the asiddha or unreal reason, a name which was ultimately applied, not merely to a middle term which does not reside in S, but also to one which is not proved by the examples adduced to be

inseparably connected with P. The ambiguity of the term anumeya, which meant either S or P or both at once (S qualified by P, SP), gave a very elastic character, at first to the first canon of the trairūpya, and subsequently perhaps to the fallacy—asiddha—which that canon was meant to exclude. The process by which the Fallacies of Exemplification were absorbed later into the ill-conceived rubric of asiddha was perhaps facilitated by the fact (referred to at p. 70, supra) that Praśastapāda used the same names for certain varieties of udāharanābhāsa which he had already used for certain varieties of asiddha-hetvābhāsa.

A fallacy of exemplification is committed when the example adduced does not show concomitance between M and P, or does not prove a universal connection between them in the form All M is P. This corresponds to the vyāpyatvāsiddha of the later schools (Keith, ILA, p. 145). An unreal reason, for Dinnāga and Praśastapāda, is a property (i) the residence of which in the Subject is denied by both parties; or is (ii) controversial; or (iii) the character of which is doubtful (as when what we see in the distance may be either vapour or smoke); or (iv) which is attributed to a subject which is unreal in that connection (as when we argue that darkness is a substance because it has qualities—the fact being that darkness is unreal in any sense which would admit of the attribution of qualities to it as their possessor).²

¹ The confusion as to the meaning of the first canon is very plain in Praśastapāda and Dinnāga, and the reason why we cannot define just what they meant by it is simply that they did not know themselves. See the discussion in Keith's ILA, pp. 137, 140. I do not think that there is any difference between the senses in which Praśastapāda and Dinnāga interpreted the first canon. The meaning of it is equally indeterminate for either.

² The names of these varieties in Praśastapāda are ubhayāsiddha, anyatarāsiddha, svabhāvāsiddha, and anumeyāsiddha. Cf. HIL, p. 293.

As names of fallacies of exemplification ubhayāsiddha means that the example adduced possesses neither M nor P, while anumeyāsiddha means that it does not possess P.

Fragment I

'Inference for Another.'

It was characteristic of Vaisesika-Bauddha logic to draw sharply the distinction, which had not been made clear in the Nyāya Sūtra and Bhāṣyc, between inference as a mental process (svārthānumāna), and inference expressed in words (parārthānumāna, 'inference for another'). The drawing of this distinction was an inevitable step in the progressive clearing up of logical conceptions; but it has been suggested that it is connected with the rejection by the Buddhist of 'word' or testimony as a separate source of knowledge.2 Inference as a mental process involves only two elements or premises: observation of the middle or mark (linga-darśana), and remembrance of the universal connection between the mark and the property to be proved (vyāpti-smarana). When expressed in words for the information of others, a syllogism has five members according to the Nyāya and Vaiśeşika schools—hence its name, pañcāvayavavākya. But the Bauddha seems to have regarded two of the 'members' as superfluous, namely the upanaya, or application, and the nigamana, or conclusion.

Definition of the 'members' of the syllogism in the Nyāya Sūtra. The Nyāya Sūtra defines the other three members in a manner which laid it open to the criticisms of Vasubandhu, as confusing the mental process of inference with the statements (vākya) in which it finds expression. Thus the Proposition is defined as "the statement of the probandum" (sādhya-nirdeśaḥ pratijñā); the Reason, as "the means of proving the probandum from likeness to the example" (udāharaṇa-sādharmyāt sādhya-sādhanam hetuḥ); and the Example or Exemplification, as "an accepted case which has the probandum-property as the result of a property in which it resembles the Subject of the

¹ Usually translated 'inference for oneself.' But it is doubtful whether -artha in this compound has the meaning 'for the sake of,' since Praśastapāda uses the term sva-niścitārthānumāna, which would mean inference of a thing ascertained by oneself.

² Keith, *ILA*, p. 107.

inference" (sādhya-sādharmyāt tad¹-dharma-bhāvī drstānta udāharanam). It is clear that the first is a definition of a premise expressed in words, while the other two are definitions of inferential functions as such; and from this point of view Vasubandhu is justified in saying the three members are badly Vasubandhu's formulated (trayo 'vayavā durvihitāḥ, p. 25) in Akṣapāda's criticism. Section 13. definition. The Bauddha himself gives separate definitions of the probandum as such (paksa) and of the statement of the probandum (pratijñā; see footnote to p. 27). Dinnāga follows Dinnāga's the line taken up by Vasubandhu in his criticism of the criticism. definition of the Reason (pp. 43-45).

Validity.

The problem of the validity of knowledge took in the Indian schools the form of asking whether the validity and invalidity (prāmānya, aprāmānya) of cognition is apprehended from the cognition itself (svatah) or from some extrinsic source (paratah). The schools are classified according to their answer to this question in some well-known lines cited in the Tārkika-rakṣā of Varada Rāja, from which we learn that the Bauddhas held that invalidity is intrinsic to a cognition as such, validity extrinsic to it. The great difficulty on the Bauddha's view is, in fact, to explain how cognition can ever be valid. He is represented (p. 29) as arguing that it does not matter whether he himself accepts the validity of the reasoning process or not, provided that he can refute his opponents with weapons which they themselves accept. This is, however, a position which it is impossible to maintain consistently, and the Bauddha's opponents point out that he himself inconsistently defines proof as "a reason accepted by both parties to a discussion," Fragment I and inference for another as " setting forth a conclusion which (ii).

Fragment I one has seen for oneself." If the Bauddha accepts no reason, (i).

Vātsyāyana points out that tad stands for sādhya, and that sādhya now means sādhya-dharmin, S, whereas in sādhya-sādharmyāt it means sādhya-dharma, P-an interesting example of the ambiguity of the term. (NBh, p. 41 [on NS, I, i, 36].)

he can never (on his own definition) prove anything (pp. 23 and 53); nor can he ever set forth in words a syllogism for the instruction of others, since he can never have seen the force of Fragment P. an inference himself. His definition of Discussion ($v\bar{a}da$) as "statement to prove one's own position and to disprove the opponent's" will be similarly open to objection: though as a matter of fact Uddyotakara criticises it on other grounds

(pp. 39 and 55).

Fragment O.

Dinnāga himself, in a much-quoted fragment, says that inference can have no reference to (ultimate) reality and non-reality, seeing that the function of inference turns wholly on the distinction of subject and predicate, a distinction which is illusorily imposed on reality by thought (pp. 51-52). To the objection that, if inference is unreal, the Buddhist cannot consistently use it for his own purposes, the reply is that inference has just as much reality as the ideal construction to which alone it applies—the whole business of knowledge and its objects is on the phenomenal plane (samviti, p. 53).

So far as inference is concerned, then, Dinnāga is a thoroughgoing idealist. It is only in his doctrine of pure perception, as somehow putting us in touch with the unique moments of existence which constitute the ultimate reality, that realistic tendencies show themselves in his logic. When we have removed all the ideal elements which overlay the pure percept and constitute what is ordinarily called perception, something still remains. But, of course, about this 'something' nothing at all can be said. It is, as Uddyotakara puts it, "like a dumb man's dream."

 $^{^1}$ $m\bar{u}ka$ -svapna-vat: which is equivalent, as noted by Keith, to the modern philosopher's remark that a consistent sensationalist should be speechless.

INDEX

I. ENGLISH

ablative case, 37, 40 and n. 1, 41, 42, 43, 46 action or movement, karma, a Vaišesika category and one of the five predicables, 58-59, 66, affirmative example, sapaksa, q.v., affirmative reason, anvayin, keva $l\bar{a}nvayin, qq.v, 7$ aggregative restriction, samuccīya $m\bar{a}n\bar{a}vadh\bar{a}rana, q.v., 17, 77 n. 1$ antinomy, viruddhävyabhicārin, 68, 69, 79 application, upanaya, 45, 82 Barbara, 31 n. 2 burden-bearer, sūtra of the, 5 n. 1 canons of syllogism, trairūpya, 22-23, 24-25, 66, 76 categories, padārtha, 7, 58 Chattopādhyāya, Ksetreśachandra, 3 n. 2 class-character, jāti, sāmanya, 68 colour, $r\bar{u}pa$, 11, 16, 72 comparison, upamāna, 5 n. 3, 48-51,71conjunction, samyoga, 68 contact, of organ and object, 14-16,73contradictory reason, viruddha, 31 and n. 3, 76 and n. 1 Cordier, H., 2 n. 1 determinate perception, savikalpaka, 66, 72Dhruva, A. B., 63 n. 1 dialectical appearances of refutation, dūṣaṇābhāsa, jāti, 70 ding-an-sich, 8 n. 1, 45 distance, perception of, 15, 73 distribution of terms, 35 dream, dumb man's, 84 example, udāharaņa, dṛṣṭānta, 5 n. 3, 36-46 passim, 69; sometimes in the sense of exempli-

fication

exemplification, udāharana, nidarśana, statement of likeness to the example, third member of the syllogism or major premise, 25, 26, 28, 76, 82 existence, 57, 58, 73 external existence, external object, 52, 53 fallacies, classification of, in VS, 67 fallacies of exemplification, nidarśanābhāsa, udāharaṇābhāsa, 69-70, 79, 80, 81 and n. 2 fallacies of middle term, hetrābhāsa, 7, 29, 30 and n. 1, 34, 79 - 80fallacies of proposition or thesis, pratijñābhāsa, 62-65, 79, 80 fiction of the understanding, kalpanā, vikalpa, 11, 45, 53, 71 five-membered statement, pañcãvāyava-vākya, syllegism, 45, see fourth figure of syllogism, 75 generality, sāmānya, 65-66, 71 genitive case, 20 and nn. 2 and 3, idealist, idealistic, 12 n. 2, 54, 84 ideality, of reasoning and its objects, 51-54, see 84 illicit major, 77 illicit minor, 77 impressions (mental), vāsanā, 53 inconclusive reason, aniścita, saindigdha, 31, 78 inference, 6, 73 (based on three kinds of middle term); 25 (for oneself and for another); 68, 74 (based on real relations); 51-54, 84 (merely ideal construction) inference for another, pararthanumāna, 5 n. 3, 25, 28-29, 82, 83 inference for oneself, svārthānumāna, 5 n. 3, 25, 47, 82 and n. 1 inherence, samavāya, 58, 68

inseparable connection, vyāpti, avinābhāva, 52, 54, 69, 73, 74 introspection, mānasa-pratyakṣa,

10 n. 1, 73

Jhā, Gaṅganātha, 22 n. 2, 24 n. 1, 26 and n. 2, 27 n. 1, 35 n. 2, 36, 39 n. 1, 41 n. 1, 51 n. 1, 55 n. 1, 68

Keith, A. B., 2 n. 2, 4 n. 1, 22 n. 1, 53-54, 67, 81 and n. 1, 82 n. 2, 84 n. 1

Kṣetreśachandra Chaṭṭopādhyāya, 3 n. 2

likeness, irrelevant, 37 n. 2, 38

locative case, 20 n. 2.

logic, Buddhist, 12 and n. 2, 84 (realism in); 70 (offshoot of Nyāya); 69 (similarity to Vaiseṣika logic)

M, symbol for middle term, 19, 34, 35, etc.

major premise, udāharaṇa, nidarśana, 20 n. 4, 31 n. 2

major term, sādhya-dharma, anumeya, 32, etc.

mark (inferential), middle term, 6, 20 n. 4.

members of the syllogism, avāyava, 25, 26, 27, 38, 83

middle term, five characters of (pañcarūpa), 80

middle term, hetu, linga, 5 n. 3, 31, etc.

middle term, three characters of (trairūpya), 22-25

minor term, sādhya-dharmin, pakṣa, q.v.

momentariness, doctrine of, 57 and n. 2, 72, 73, cf. 84

name (one of the five predicables), 66, cf. 9

negative example, vipakṣa, 7, 76 negative reason, vyatirekin, kevalavyatirekin, 7

nine types of syllogism, hetu-cakra, 29-33, 66-67, 77

non-P, X-non-P, symbol for vipakṣa, negative case, 40, 41, etc. object (of apprehension), grāhya, 11, 12

P, symbol for major term, 19, etc. paradeigmatic syllogism, 75, 77 parsimony (in expression), 55

particular to particular, argument from, rejected by Dinnaga, 69; reasserted by Uddyotakara, 75 particularity, visesa, one of the five predicables, 66 perception, 5 n. 3, 8-13, 49, 71-73,

84 Péri, Nöel, 2 n. 2

permanent existents, 57 and n. 2 Poussin, L. de la Vallée, 56 nn. 2 and 3, 57 n. 1

predicables, the five, visesana, 65-66, 71, 72

predication, validity of, 72 probandum, anumeya, sād

probandum, anumeya, sādhya, qq.v. probans, hetu, sādhana, 46, etc.

probans, new, samula, 40, etc. probans-probandum relation, ideality of the, 51-54

proof, 29, 83

^t proposition,' pratijñā, first member of syllogism, 25, 26, 28, 38, 52, 53, 82

pure percept, 11, 66, 84

quality, guna, a Vaisesika category, and one of the five predicables, 66, 71

quaternio terminorum, 74

realism, realist, 12 and n. 2, 54, 72, 84

reason (1), hetu in the sense of middle term, 5 n. 3, 34, 35, etc.

'reason' (2), hetu as the statement of reason or second member of syllogism, 25, 26, 28, 34-36, 82, 83

relations, imposed by thought on reality, 53, cf. 84

relations, real, as the basis of inference, 68, 74

Ronki (Chinese equivalent of Vāda-vidhi), 27

Ronshiki (Chinese equivalent of Vāda-mārga), 27

Ronshin (Chinese equivalent of Vāda-kauśala), 27

S, symbol for minor term, 19, 34, 35, etc.

septenary of syllogisms, 24-25, 30 n. 1, 33, 78, 80

simple apprehension, nirvikalpaka,

Socmock, Chinese name for Akşapāda, 48 and n. 1, 66, 67, 70 soul, qualities of the, 13

SP, symbol for the Subject of inference, 35, etc.

specific character, 71

Stcherbatsky, Th., 2 n. 2, 4 n. 1, 5 and n. 2, 54, 61, 64, 65

Strauss, O., 4 n. 1

subject' of inference, the anumeya or pakṣa, roughly the minor term, 43, etc.

substance = dravya (nothing apart from qualities), 11; (perceptibility of), 16 ff., 72; (alone capable of movement), 58-59; (qualification by relation to a substance, as a predicable), 66, 71

Sugiura, Sadajiro, 1 n. 3, 27, 48, 61, 62, 66, 69, 80

Tanjur, the, 1 n. 3

testimony, śabda-pramāṇa, 5 n. 3, 49, 52, 71, 82

Thomas, F. W., 2 n. 1, 3 n. 2, 31 n. 1

three characters of a valid middle term, trairūpya, trilakṣaṇa-hetu, 5 n. 3, 22-25

Tripitaka, the Chinese, 1 n. 3 Ui, H., 1 n. 3, 61, 62, 64

ultimate differences, viśesa, Vaiśesika category, 58

undistributed middle, 77

universal, the, sāmānya, (cannot inhere in certain categories), 56-60, 67-68; (ubiquitousness of), 58, 67; (eternality of), 59, 72; (not subjective), 67; (not localised), 67; (conditions of manifestation), 68; (reality of, and validity of predication), 72; (a separate category), 72; (perceptible), 72

universal proposition, vyāpti (said to have been introduced by Dinnāga), 69

unreal reason, asiddha, 76 and n. 1, 81

validity of knowledge, 83-84 Vidyābhūṣaṇa, S. C., passim vision, 14-16

visual organ, 15, 73

wheel of reasons, hetu-cakra, 34 wholes, perceptibility and reality of, 72, 73

words, relation of, to things, 39 and n. 2

XP, X-non-P, symbols for affirmative instance (sapakṣa) and negative instance (vipakṣa), passim

II. SANSKRIT

amśa, ekadeśa, one of the two terms, M and P, of an inference, 7, 46, 47, 48

akṣa, sense-organ, eye, 14 Akṣa-caraṇa = Akṣapāda, 57 Akṣapāda (Gauṭama, Gotama), 1

n. 1, 7, 25, 26, 66, 70, 83 adhikarana, function of the loca-

tive case, 20 n. 2

adhyavaseya, 12 n. 2 adhyavasāya, 80

anadhyavasita, a variety of fallacious middle, the reason which leads to no conclusion at all, 'non-sequitur,' 32 (n. 4 to p. 31),

aniścita = sandigdha, savyabhicāra, variety of fallacious middle, the inconclusive reason, 30, 31 n. 4, 78, 79

anugatatva, anugama, the residence of one universal in many particulars, 58

anupalabdhi, non-perception, one

of the three inferential marks or kinds of middle term, 6

anumata, the methodological principle (tantra-yukti) of tacit acceptance, 13, 14

anumāna, 6, 7, 21-22, 22 (Section

anumana-viruddha, a variety of fallacious thesis, contradicted by inference, 62, 63 and n. 1

anumānānumeya-bhāva (-vyavahāra), 51, 52

anumeya, the probandum in an inference, SP, 5 n. 3, 6, 7, 18-21, 20 n. 4, 22, 23, 51, 52, 74-75, 77 n. 1, 81

anumeyāsiddha (anumeya-vyāvrtta), a variety of fallacious exemplification, 69-70; a variety of unreal middle, 70. See 81 and n. 2

anuştubh, 22, 27 n. 1 anyatarāsiddha, variety of asiddha, anvayin, affirmative form of syllogism, 31 n. 2

aparicchinna-deśa, not localised (a characteristic of the universal), 67

apoha, 5 n. 3, 7, 72 apoha-vāda, 7, 59

a prāpya-kāritva, the doctrine that a sense-organ functions without contact with its object, 15, 73

abhidhāna, statement, 37-38 abhidheya, thing stated, 37-38

abhyupagata-viruddha, a variety of fallacious thesis contradicted by authority, = āgama-viruddha, 63

aprāmāṇya, invalidity, 83 artha, thing, 52, 54, 73

artha-kriyā-kāritva, the doctrine that existence means practical efficacy, 57

artha-śāstra, 40 avadhārana, restricti

avadhāraņa, restriction of a predicate to a class, 7, 35

avayava, member of the syllogism, 25, 83

avidyamāna-vipakṣa, an argument in which no negative instances are available, 78 n. 1

avidyamāna-sapakṣa, an argument in which no positive instances are available, 78 n. 1

avinābhāva, inseparable connection, = vyāpti, 69, 74

avisamvāda, 17 (Section 8), 18 avīta-hetu, = kevala-vyatirekin, 78 n. 1

avyapadeśya, 68

avyabhicāra, conclusiveness of a reason, unfailing accompaniment of M by P, 18 (Section 19), 19, 37 n. 2

avyāpaka, not resident in all, 35, 46

Asanga, 2 n. 2

asat, variety of fallacious middle, 76 and n. 1

asapakṣa (= vipakṣa), negative instance, 29, 30

asādhāraṇa, a variety of fallacious middle, where M is peculiar to S, 32 (n. 4 to p. 31), 78, 79

asiddha (-hetvābhāsa), a variety of fallacious middle, where M fails to reside in S, 30 n. 1, 70, 76 n. 1, 77, 78, 80, 81 and n. 2

ākāra, jñānākāra, presentation (mental), 11, 58

āgama, 48, 49, 51, 52

āgama-viruddha, a variety of fallacious thesis, 63 and n. 1 ātman. 6

ātma-samvedya, 9

āptodeśa, definition of śabda, 17, 18

Ālambana-parīkṣā, 1 n. 3, 29, 53 Ālambana-parīkṣā-vṛtti, 1 n. 3, 53

ālocana-mātra, bare intuition, 72
 āśrayāsiddha, a variety of fallacious exemplification, 69

iti, 34 n. 2, 39 indriya, 6, 13, 14

udāharuņa (1) example = drsṭānta, and (2) exemplification, the third member of the syllogism = nidarśana, 7, 20 n. 4, 36-46 passim, 48, 51, 82-83

udāharana-sādharmya, likeness to example as instrument of proof, 36-46 passim, 75-76, 82

udāharanābhāsa, fallacious exemplification, 80, 81

Uddyotakara, cited passim; his attack on the doctrine of vyāpti, 69, 74-75; his ignoring of Vaiseṣika logic, 69, cf. 62; his observations on fallacies of thesis, 62-63; criticism of the trairūpya, 76-77; view of purely positive and purely negative reasons, 78 and nn. 1 and 2, 79

upanaya, the application, fourth member of syllogism, 42, 51, 82 upamāna, comparison, one of the four pramāna's of the Nyāya, 7, 48-51

ubhayāsiddha (ubhaya-vyāvṛtta), variety of fallacious exemplification, 69, 70; variety of asiddhahetvābhāsa, 70. See 81 and n. 2

ekadeśa, the two terms in an inference, M and P, 20 n. 1, 48 ekadeśa-vyttitva=avyūpaka, resi-

dence in some but not all cases, 35

ekadeśin, the Subject, or possessor of the two terms in an inference, S or SP, 20 n. 1, 48 eva, 17 Kaṇa-bhakṣa, = Kaṇāda, 57 Kaṇāda, 57 karma, movement, a Vaišeṣika

category, and one of the predicables, 59

karma-dhāraya compound, 21, 22 kalpanā, ideal element in perception, 9, 65, 66, 71

kalpanāpodhā, the pure percept, divested of ideal elements, 8, 66,71

kāraka, the functions conveyed usually by case-inflections, 20 n. 2, 41

kāraņa-sāmagrī, totality of causal conditions, 68

kārya, effect, one of the three varieties of inferential mark or middle term, 6

Kālidāsa, 3 and n. 2

Kāśyapa, 66

Kīrti = Dharmakīrti, 8, 26 Kumārila Bhatta, 13 n. 1, 20 n. 4,

21, 29, 48, 53, 74, 75

kurvad-rūpa, momentary collocation of conditions regarded as cause, 57 n. 2

kevala-vyatirekin, purely negative reason, 76, 78 n. 1

kevalānvayin, purely positive reason, 76, 78 and n. 2

kṣana, kṣanika, momentary existent, 14, 57, 71, 73

kṣepāyoga, impossibility that a cause should postpone the production of its effects, 57 n. 2

gamaka, probans, 20 n. 1, 48 gamya, probandum, 20 n. 1, 48 qāthā, 56

guna, quality, a Vaišesika category and one of the predicables, 66 Gotama, Gautama, 70

grāhya, the reality grasped in perception, cf. adhyavaseya, 11, 12 and n. 2, 71

grāhya-dharma = pakṣa-dharma, a property possessed by the Subject of an inference, 7, 46, 69

 $j\tilde{a}ti(1) = s\tilde{a}m\tilde{a}nya$, genus or species, class-nature, 9, 66

jāti (2)=dūṣaṇābhāsa, dialectical appearance of refutation, 5 n. 3, 8, 70

jñānākāra, ākāra, presentation, 11.58

tat-tulya = sapakṣa, 5 n. 3, 7, 22, 23 tad-anvita = tat-tulya, 23

tantra-yukti, methodological principles of a śāstra, 13, 14

tarkā-śāstra, attributed to Vasubandhu, 27

Tārkika-rakṣā, 83

Tri-kāla-parīkṣā, 1 n. 3

tri-lakṣana-hetu, a middle term possessing the three characters laid down in the trairūpya, 24, 25, 34 n. 2, 47, 76, 78

trairūpya, the three characters of a valid middle term, 5 n. 3, 7, 23, 24, 33, 36 n. 1, 47, 48, 66-67, 76, 77 and n. 1, 80, 81

Dinnāga, passim; (referred to by name in citations), 1 and n. 1, 8, 14, 16, 17, 18, 23, 29, 42, 46, 49, 51, 52, 59; (realist tendency in his logic), 12 and n. 2, 54-84; (his idealism), 54, 84; (his introduction of the universal premise), 69; (on fallacies), 79-81

dūṣanābhāsa, fallacious appearance of refutation=jāti, 70
 dṛṣtānta, probative example=udāharaṇa, 83

dravya, substance, q.v., 16, 66 dharma=sādhya-dharma, probandum or major term, 18, 19

dharma-dharmi-bhāva (or -nyāya), relation or rubric of property and property-possessor, 51, 52

Dharmakīrti, author of the Nyāyabindu, 8 and n. 1, 12 n. 2, 26, 27 n. 2, 77 n. 1

dharma-viśista-dharmin, S-qualified-by-P, 75

dharmin=sādhya-dharmin, property-possessor, subject of the property to be proved, minor term, 18, 19 and n. 1, 75

dharmi-visista-dharma, P-qualified-by-S, 75

Dharmottara, author of the Nyāya-bindu-tīkā, 12 n. 2

nāntarīyakārtha, a thing inseparably connected with another thing, 7, 21, 22, 23, 51, 52

nāma-jāti-yojaņā, explanation of kalpanā, 9, cf. 66

Nārikela-dvīpa, 22 n. 2

nidarśana = udāharana, third member of the syllogism, exemplification or major premise, 48 nigamana, conclusion or fifth member of syllogism, 82

nirvikalpaka-jñāna, 'simple apprehension,' cf. savikalpaka, vikalpa, 10 n. 1, 72

Nyāya-kandalī, 9 n. 1

Nyāya-dvāra, 1 n. 3, 48, 61-70 (esp. 61, 64), 80

Nyāya-praveśa, 1 n. 3, 2 and n. 1, 4, 27 n. 1, 31 n. 1, 61-70 (esp. 61, 64)

Nyāya-bindu, 4 n. 2, 27 n. 2

Nyāya-bhāṣya, 2, 14, 48, 65, 66, 73, 75, 82

Nyāya-ratnākara (of Pārthasā-rathi Miśra, q.v.), 28, 52

Nyāya-vārttika, passim. See list of contents

Nyāya-vārttika-tātparya-tīkā, passim. See list of contents

Nyāya-sūtra, 6, 7, 8, 14, 17, 18, 25, 28, 33, 38, 48, 50, 51, 52, 55, 66, 67, 70, 73, 75, 82

paksa, thesis, the Subject of inference, minor term, 17, 24, 25, 27 n. 1, 32, 46, 47, 83

pakṣa-dharma, a middle term as resident in the Subject of the inference, 29, 30 and n. 1, 34-36, 80

pakṣa-dharmatā, residence of M in S, 7, 20 n. 4, 33, see 34-36

 $paks\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sa$, fallacious thesis = $pratij\tilde{n}\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sa$, 27 n. 1

pañcamī, ablative case-inflection, 36, 37 n. 1, 42

pañca-rūpopapanna, middle term possessed of five characters, 80

pañcāvayava-vākya, the five-membered statement of inference,

25, 37, 38, 42, 48, 82 paratah-prāmānya, validity extrinsic to cognition, 84

parāmarša, 75 parārthānumāna, inference expressed in words, 25, 28, 29, 38 n. 1, 82

paricchedaka, 9 Pāṇini, 20 n. 2

Pārthasārathi Miśra, author of Nyāya-ratnākarā, 20 n. 4, 52, 53 prthutara-grahana, perception of objects larger than the eye, 15

prakāra, predicate, 38, 39

pratijñā, the 'Proposition,' first member of the syllogism, 7,
13 n. 1, 25, 26, 27 and n. 1, 38,
51, 52, 56, 82, 83

pratijñābhāsa, fallacious proposition or thesis, 62, 79 n. 1, 80
 pratyakṣa, perception, 8 and n. 1,

9, 10, 11, etc. pratyakṣa-viruddha, a variety of

fallacious thesis, 62 Prabhākara Miśra, founder of the *Prābhākara* school of *Mīmāmsā*,

pramāna, instrument of knowledge, 6, 71 (only two ——'s); 48, 49, 50, 51, 52

48, 49, 50, 51, 52 Pramāṇa-samuccaya, 1, 6-8, 61 et passim

Pramāṇa-samuccaya-vṛtti, 1 n. 3, 17, 22, 23, 40 n. 1, 47

prameya, 6, 13, 14

Praśastapāda, 4 and n. 1, 14, 25, 27 n. 1, 32 (n. 4 to p. 31), 48, 54, 58, 59, 60; (relation to Dinnāga), 61-70 (esp. 64-65), 72, 76 n. 1, 79, 81 and nn. 1 and 2, 82 n. 2

Praśastapāda-bhāṣya, 17, 23, 27 n. 1, 48, 60, 61, 61-70, 72

prasiddha-viruddha (?), kind of fallacious thesis, 63

prāpti=samnikarṣa, contact of
 organ with object in perception,
 14

prāmānya, validity, 84

bahih-sad-asattva, bāhyārtha, external existence, external object, 51, 52

bādhita, annulled reason, a variety of fallacious middle, 80

buddhi, 51, 52

buddhyārūdha, illusorily imposed on reality by thought, 51, 52

bhadanta, 17 (Section 8), 27 n. 1, 28 n. 1 ad fin., 37 n. 1, 42, 49 matup (-pratyaya), the possessive

suffix -mat, 20 n. 3 manas, the organ of attention and

of inner sense, 6, 13-14, 73 Mādhavācārya, Mādhava, author of the Sarva-daršana-samgraha,

60

mānasa-pratyakṣa, inner sense-

perception, 10 n. 1, 73 Mallinātha, 3 n. 2

Mīmāmsaka, 7

mūka-svapna, dumb man's dream, incommunicable, 84 $Megha-d\bar{u}ta$, 3 and n. 2 meya = anumeya, the probandum, $Yog\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$, idealist, $=vij\tilde{n}\bar{a}nav\bar{a}din$, lāghava, parsimony in expression, 55 n. 2 linga, inferential mark or middle term, = hetu, 18, 19linga-darśana, one of two factors in inferential knowledge, 82 (linga-vyāvrtta), lingāsiddha variety of the fallacies of exemplification, 69, 70 loka-viruddha, a variety of fallacious thesis, 63 and n. 1 Varada Rāja, 83 Wasubandhu, 2 and n. 2, 3 n. 1, 10 and n. 2, 11, 12, 25-28, 54, 55, 56 and n. 1, 71, 82, 83 vākyāmsa, member of the pañcāvayava-vākya or syllogism, 36, Vācaspati Miśra, passim Vātsyāyana, 2, 7, 13, 14, 50, 51, 52, 65, 66, 67, 73, 74, 75 n. 1 vāda, 26, 27, 39, 54-56, 84 Vāda-vidhāna, 26 n. 2, 55 n. 2 Vāda-vidhāna-ṭīkā, 26 n. 2, 28 n. 1, Vāda-vidhi, 26 and n. 2, 27, 55 n. 2, 56 vādābhidhāna, 26 n. 2, 55 and $V\bar{a}rttika = Ny\bar{a}ya-v\bar{a}rttika$ värttika, 24 n. 1, 41 n. 1 vāsanā, mental impression, or trace left on the mind, 51 Vāsubandhava, 10, 26 vikalpa, ideal element in perception, cf. kalpanā, 36, 51 vikalpa-viruddha (?), a variety of fallacious thesis, $= anum\bar{a}na-vi$ ruddha, 62 vijnānā - vāda, vijnāna - vādin, (idealism, idealist = Yogācāra), vipakṣa, negative instance, or case in which the property to be proved is absent, 24, 25, 30, 31 and n. 1, 32, 40 n. 2, 41 and n. 1, 46, 47, 76 n. 1, 77 vipakṣa-vyāpaka, a middle found

in all non-P, 77

vipakṣād viśeṣah, definition of hetu, 33 n. 2, 40 n. 2 vipakṣāvrtti, a middle never found in non-P, 77 vipakṣaikadeśa-vṛtti, \mathbf{a} middle found in some non-P, 77 viruddha (-hetvābhāsa), contradictory reason, variety of fallacious middle term, 30, 69, 78, 79 n. 1 viruddhāvyabhicārin, antinomic reason, one of a pair of mutually contradictory but apparently conclusive reasons, 68, 68-69, vivarana, ?=vṛtti, i.e. Pramāṇasamuccaya-vrtti, 46, 47 viśesa (1), ultimate difference, a Vaišesika category, 58 viśesa (2), species, specific difference, one of the predicables, viśesana, the five predicables, 6, 65, 66, 52 vrtti = Pramāṇa - samuccaya - vrtti,22, 23, 47*Vaibhāṣika*, 12 and n. 2 Vaišesika commentators before Prasastapāda, 64, 65, 76 Vaišeṣika-sūtra, 14, 17, 65, 67, 68,76 and n. 1 vyapadiśyate, vyapadeśya, 8 n. 1, 9, 10, 11 vyāpaka, pervading, i.e. resident in all, 35 and n. 1 vyāpta, pervaded, i.e. invariably accompanied, 7, 46, 47, 69, vyāpti, pervasion, i.e. inseparable accompaniment, esp. of M by P in an inference, 31 n. 2, 48, 67, 69, 74, 77 and n. 1 vyāpti-smaraṇa, one of the two factors in inference, 82 vyāpyatvāsiddha, variety of fallacious middle, 81 Samkara Svāmin, 1 n. 3, 61 śabda (-pramāṇa), testimony, one of the four means of knowledge of the $Ny\bar{a}ya$, 6, 7, 17-18 śāstra, śāstratva, 55 and n. 2 Sloka-vārttika, 12, 13 n. 1, 20 nn. 1, 3 and 4, 21, 28, 51sasthī, sixth or genitive case, inflection, 19, 20 n. 2, 36, samvrti, phenomenal existence, 10, 53, 84

sainvedya, 9, 73

sajatīya, similar case = sapakṣa, 30, 33

samj, ā-samjñi-sambandha, relation between name and thing named, the knowledge obtained through upamāna, 49

sattā-sāmānya, the universal 'Being.' existence as a universal, 57 sat-pratipakṣa, antinomic reason,

79,80

saindigdha, inconclusive middle term = aniścita, savyabhicāra, 31 n. 4, 76, 78, 79

samnikarsa, contact of organ with object in perception, 6

sapakṣa, affirmative instance, case in which the property to be proved is present, 17, 24, 25, 29, 30 and n. 2, 31 nn. 1 and 2, 32 and n. 1, 46, 47, 76 n. 1, 77

sapakṣa-vyāpaka, a middle found in all XP, 77

sapakṣāvṛtti, a middle never found in XP, 77

sapaksaikadeśa-vrtti. found in some XP, 77

saptikā, septenary of types of syllogism and paralogism, 24

samavāya, the relation of inherence, subsisting between whole and parts, substance and qualities, universal and particulars, 58, 68

samuccīyamānāvadhāraņa, aggregative restriction, application of the restrictive particle to a collection of things, 16

sambhava, concomitance, 35

samyoga, the relation of 'conjunction' which subsists between substances only, 68

Sarva-darśana-samgraha, 9 n. 1, 12 and n. 2, 56-60

savikalpaka (-jñāna), determinate perception, as contrasted with nirvikalpaka, 6, 72

sahakārin, an auxiliary circumstance determining a cause to produce its effect, 57 n. 2

Sāmkhya, 6 sādršya, 7, 49

sādhana, proof, probans, 20 n. 1, 30, 36, 42, 44

sādharmua, likeness (of subject of inference to example, as proving the conclusion), 46-48, 75, 83

sādhya = anumeya, probandum, major term, 7, 20 n. 1, 30, 36, 38, 42, 74, 75 n. l

sāntara-grahana, perception of objects as at a distance, 14, 15

sāmānādhikaranya, the fact of referring to the same thing, as when an adjective qualifies a substantive, 42, 43

sāmānya, the universal, a Vaiśesika category, 6, 56-60, 58; (one of the five predicables), 66 -sāmānya, a thing considered in its

common or general character, 46, 47, 48

sāmānya-viśeṣa-bhāva, relation of genus to species, 42 sukha, 6, 13, 14

Subandhu = Vasubandhu, 25, 26 and n. 1, 27 and n. 1, 54, 55 n. 1, 56

sūtra (Bauddha), 11, 55, 56 and n. 1

Sautrāntika, 12 and n. 2, 33 n. 2

 $Saubandhava = V\bar{a}subandhava, q.v.,$ 26.55

svatah-prāmānya, validity intrinsic to cognition, 83

 $svabh\bar{a}va = t\bar{a}d\bar{a}tmya$, identity, one of the three kinds of inferential mark, 6

svabhāvāsiddha, variety of asiddha-hetvābhāsa, 81 n. 2

svarūpa, thing-in-itself, see svalaksana, 8 n. 1, 9; a character as unrelated, 72

svarūpa-sattā, unique mode of existence, 58

svalaksana=ksana, momentary existent as ding-an-sich, 36, 42, 71 sva-vacana-viruddha, a variety of fallacious thesis, 64

sva-śāstra-viruddha, a variety of fallacious thesis, 62, 63

sva-samvedana, self-awareness of a mental state, 9

svārthānumāna, svaniścitārthānumāna, inference drawn by oneself, opp. parārthānumāna, 7, 38 n. 1, 82 and n. 1

hetu (1), reason or middle term = linga, 7, 24, 25, 33 and n. 2, 34 and n. 2, 35 n. 1, 46-48, 51

hetu (2), statement of reason, second member of syllogism, 36-46, 48, 82

hetu-cakra, wheel of reasons, i.e. the nine syllogistic types, 30 n. 1, 67, 77, 78

Hetu-cakra-damaru (incorrectly -hamaru), 2 n. 1, 33 n. 1, 34

Hetu-vidyā-nyāya-praveśa-śāstra = Nyāya-praveśa, q.v., 1 n. 3

hetvähhäsa, fallacious middle term, 9, 29 (Section 15), 30 and n. 1, 34,80

